JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

FEBRUARY 1961

volume 36, number 2

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION FOR ALL: MEXICO

GUIDANCE: IMAGE OF THE FUTURE

THE COUNSELOR'S ROLE

UNDER-ACHIEVING GIFTED PUPILS IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

DISTRIBUTION OF CLASS MARKS

SYMPOSIUM THIS MONTH

THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM IN THE NEW DECADE

—THEME FOR THE YEAR—

NEW LEVELS OF EXCELLENCE FOR THE NEXT DECADE

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The *Journal of Secondary Education* is published by the California Association of Secondary School Administrators eight months during the year and is issued in the calendar months of October to May, inclusive. Subscription is $5.00 per year; single copies, current school year, 70 cents; single copies, prior to current year, $1.00. Annual subscription in all countries in the International Postal Union, $5.50. Subscribers are requested to report at once any change of address, giving old as well as new addresses. Second-class postage paid at Burlingame, California. Address all business correspondence and requests for subscriptions or copies to *Journal of Secondary Education*, 1705 Murchison Drive, Burlingame, California. To purchase microfilm volumes, write University Microfilms, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

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EDITORIAL

THE GRADING SYSTEM AND HIGHER LEVELS OF EXCELLENCE

As high schools strive for higher levels of excellence one problem that arises is that of the marking or the grading system. How does and should it affect and be affected by this emphasis upon excellence? In a toughening vein such comments as these may be heard: grading policies should be stricter; assign fewer high marks and more lower ones; make A's hard to obtain; make sure that marks represent genuine achievement on the basis of absolute standards, not merely effort, good attitude, or improvement; be certain that marks in high school are conservative enough so that pupils do not suffer too great shock at the different standards they meet in college. Do these remarks represent wise counsel?

The problem is particularly complicated for the more academically inclined students who are increasingly placed in special sections, e.g., in advanced standing classes. In these groups, pupils of high ability and achievement compete for grades. The A's are harder to come by than when these same students were in classes grouped more heterogenously. Should a differential grade be recorded for pupils in special groups? Should a B in a fast class automatically become an A on the permanent record card? Or should there be a subscript on the transcript to alert college admission officers and employers? If only one grade is to be recorded, with no special marking, how can grades for these selected pupils be computed in the grade point average so that they will not be penalized in their applications for scholarships? An alleged growing resistance to special advanced classes is reported because these difficulties have not been overcome. This was reflected in a recent conversation we had with a sensitive, intelligent father who remarked, "We have taken Ann out of the advanced standing program in English in this last year of high school. It was not only too onerous, but she was being penalized in her grades. She was likely to be denied a fair break in college admission and scholarships. This is but one of the kinds of problems arising as a result of the movement to "raise standards." There is need for constructive discussion of the problem of the grading system as it relates to higher standards. Without attempting to suggest specific solutions, a basis for discussion may be laid by examining the nature, place, and purpose of the grading system in the modern high school.

The standard practice is for teachers independently to assign grades to pupils in each of the courses taken. Typically the marks are A, B, C, D, and F; a few schools use a percentage system, and others a more elaborate designation. A and B are college recommending grades. To receive credit and to proceed to the next course in the sequence, a pupil must pass a course with a grade of D or better. If a pupil accumulates enough credits in designated courses with a prescribed grade point average he graduates from high school. Typically grades are recorded each six weeks, with a semester grade which appears on the official transcript. Thus a pupil's progress and achievement in high school in the United States is reflected in and largely judged by the grades he makes. This is in contrast to a system of external examinations which are used to denote progress in secondary schools in many parts of the world; at the end of a course, a year, or often after several years, a pupil in foreign secondary schools takes a series of comprehensive examinations, and the marks he receives in these determine whether or not he shall pass or fail and be graduated.

Each system—one of examinations, the other of grades and credits—has its advocates, its problems, and its perplexities. In this country we hear from time to time—increasingly so just now—that we should go over to the examination system.

The grading system perennially stands as a topic of lively, often violent, discussion among teachers, administrators, pupils, and parents. The difficulty which surrounds the system is so great that proposals are often advanced to "abolish grades." This usually means to simplify the system to a pass or fail set of categories. Even so, the system in its traditional form persists, as do its problems. While we may expect many future sorties against it, a form of grading will no doubt continue. Why is it so persistent? In any enterprise where human beings work there runs a strong desire to know "how well are we doing?" In school, learners want to know how well they are succeeding in their learning. Others—parent, employer, college admission officer—are also concerned about the progress of the pupil.

One difficulty that continually arises is that of having the grades become ends in themselves. The pupil may become motivated primarily by grades rather than by the intrinsic merit of the subject he is learning. In other countries, the passing of the external examination becomes the dominating, extrinsic motive. In either instance, a genuine block to the value of the study occurs. In one sense, grades are the coin of the educational realm. When grades stand for so much, it is difficult to keep from falling into the error that grades are valuable in themselves.

In the months ahead as discussions will be held in many schools and communities, and as attempts will be made to resolve problems that

stem from efforts to raise standards, we should be mindful of the fact that when too great preoccupation with grades occurs on the part of teachers, pupils, or parents, something has gone awry elsewhere in the system. The grading system, it should be remembered, is more symptomatic than causal.

Since the purpose of the grading system is to communicate the progress and status of pupils, it is important that the standards and goals be clearly defined, understood, and accepted both by pupil and teacher. There should be clarity on the kind of evidence to be used and the weight to be given to various factors in computing grades. Lack of agreement between faculty members should be reduced, for such differences raise questions in the minds of pupils and parents. Pupils typically receive lower marks in some subjects and even though the grading may be quite accurate, it is easy for the pupil to claim "unfairness" in grading as the reason for his inability to make higher grades in a particular subject. When a low mark is received, the natural human tendency is to look elsewhere than to oneself for the fault. Even though the strong force persists to cause one to want to know how well one is doing, we do not like to find out or to be told that we are not doing well. He who evaluates another—as a teacher must—places himself in an uneasy position. This lies at the base of much of the tension that permeates teacher-pupil relationships.

As we move into a period of enforcing higher standards of excellence, rumblings suggest that all is not going smoothly. We need thoroughly to explore the problems and issues as they are reflected in the grading system, and to formulate constructive plans for their solution and resolution.

R. N. B.

YOU WISH TO TEACH OVERSEAS?

Your first problem is to find out what program tempts you and whom to write to. More than 25 separate agencies sponsor international exchange of teachers, administrators, and professors. Some of these agencies are the U. S. Government, foreign governments, church-supported missions, private companies, international friendship groups, and overseas private schools. For example, in the last-named category, there is a total of 73 American privately supported International Schools in Europe, Africa, and Asia where instruction is in the English language.

A list of all overseas teacher and administrator exchange programs—by name of sponsor, address, description of programs, qualifications for employment, and conditions of work—may be found in the leaflet, "Unusual Teaching Opportunities at Home and Abroad," published by the NEA Committee on International Relations. Write to the *Spotlight* for a free copy.

NASSP *Spotlight*
Sept.-Oct. 1960

SHOULD ALL CHILDREN LEARN A TRADE?— MEXICO SAYS "YES"

BY WALTER TRASIN*

A revolutionary change may occur in the secondary schools of Mexico during the next few years. If a new proposal goes into effect all public secondary schools will be required to provide, in addition to academic studies, a three-year program of training in the fundamentals of a specific trade. Every boy and girl who completes the secondary school, which is similar to our junior high school, should be prepared to earn a living.

This change in educational policy results from a realistic appraisal of the facts of school attendance. Of every hundred pupils who enter the first year of the secondary school, only fifteen complete the three year program. Eighty-five per cent of the pupils are lost, swallowed by the economics of poverty. Most of the pupils who drop out of school do so, not because they lack ability, but because they must find work, any kind of work, in order to live. Unfortunately, they are unprepared for anything but manual labor, an abundant commodity in Mexico. Under the proposed policy, those students who continue their education will have had the necessary academic background for higher studies. Those who terminate will be able to enter a trade.

This development is expected to have a three-fold impact. (1) It will increase the holding power of the school, since job opportunities are expected to increase with the degree of training. (2) It will help to build a body of technicians and mechanics, an urgent need in this developing industrial economy. (3) It will make possible a higher standard of living for the individual who becomes a skilled worker.

Education in Mexico is free and is compulsory from ages 6 through 14. Some observers have pointed out that if school attendance regula-

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tions were strictly enforced, it would be necessary to double the number of schools and quadruple the number of teachers. After the student has completed primary school, a period of 6 years, he may attend secondary school for 3 years, then preparatory school for 2 years and the university for from 3 to 7 years. The secondary school program has traditionally followed the path leading to the university, in spite of the fact that great numbers of students fall by the wayside. As a partial answer to this problem, the National Polytechnic Institute and other federal and state schools were established to provide high level technical and professional training. However, this has not solved the educational and vocational problems of the majority of young people.

Early in 1959, a committee of educators who had been studying the problem recommended that every pupil in the secondary schools learn a trade along with his academic studies. In the school "Rafael Dondé" an experimental program was initiated to develop a course of studies which might eventually set the pattern for all secondary schools in the nation.

Rafael Dondé, originally a boarding school which was supported by a private philanthropic foundation, had fallen into poor condition. Several years ago, it was taken over by the government and reorganized as a secondary school. The large grounds provided room for future growth. There were, in addition to administration and classroom buildings, several large, solidly constructed units which were suitable for shop buildings. It was decided to set up the pilot project here.

The planning committee made two clear decisions: (1) that all students would follow an identical academic program, regardless of their future plans or circumstances, and (2) that each student would take a definite sequence of courses leading to a specific trade. In order to implement the first decision, it was necessary to select those academic courses which are basic to a program of higher education and which, at the same time, provide the foundation for intelligent citizenship for those who will have no further education. The following courses were selected:

FIRST YEAR

Course	Hours Per Week
Spanish Language I	4
Mathematics I	4
Biology I	4
Universal Geography	3
Universal History	3
Foreign Language I	3

SECOND YEAR

Course	Hours Per Week
Spanish Language 11	4
Mathematics II	4
Biology II	4
Geography of Mexico	3
History of Mexico	3
Foreign Language II	3

THIRD YEAR

Spanish Language III	3
Mathematics III	3
Physics	4
Chemistry	4
Civics	3
Foreign Language III	3

The trade courses vary with the social-economic needs of the region and will, of course, be determined to some extent by available materials and facilities for instruction. Since most secondary schools are segragated according to sex, the girls' schools will offer trade training in dressmaking, secretarial work, cooking, etc. Schools for boys will provide training for entrance into such trades as machinist, industrial draftsman, bookkeeper, auto mechanic, welder, foundry worker, electrician, carpenter, construction worker, printer, and radio-television repairman.

At Rafael Dondé, programs are operating in drafting, electricity, bookkeeping, and foundry work. An automotive program is being organized, and the first stage of machinist training, bench-metal work, is functioning. Lathes, milling machines, and other machine tools are being installed and this second stage of the machinist program will soon be in operation. Plans for future development include training facilities for printing and radio-television work.

During the first month of school, students are introduced to the various trade programs, and each student chooses the trade he wants to learn. He may alter his choice within the first three months, but after that time he may not change his program. Upon graduation, he is given a Certificate of Secondary Education which indicates the trade program he has completed.

Following is an outline of the program in industrial drafting. Other programs are similarly organized.

Course	Hours Per Week
FIRST YEAR	
Technology of Materials	3
Line Drawing (geometric, isometric projection)	6
Drafting I (schemes and diagrams of industrial installations)	3
SECOND YEAR	
Machine Tools and Mechanisms	3
Industrial Drawing I	6
Drafting II (schemes, etc.)	3
THIRD YEAR	
Industrial Drawing II	6
Design of Machine Parts	6

Classes in academic and technical subjects are held Monday through Friday. Saturday is devoted to sports, games, music, and art. Although Saturday is an official school day of six hours, the groups are less formal and the student has considerable freedom to choose the activities in which he is most interested. Nevertheless, students are encouraged to participate in all activities.

The proposed program for the secondary schools in Mexico is a step toward providing meaningful education for increasing numbers of young people, strengthening the foundations of the developing industrial economy, and helping to raise the standard of living.

1960 STATISTICS

It is misleading to refer to 1960 or any subsequent year as a "record year," thus giving the impression of peaks and valleys. For the next decade or two, the picture is rather one of a steady ascent on a mountain whose peak is not in sight. The 1960 level showed these figures: school enrollment from kindergarten through high school, public and private, was 44,670,000, compared with 42,970,000 the year before. While all enrollments were growing, those in the Catholic and independent schools were growing at a faster rate than those in the public schools.

In higher education, the enrollment reached 3,980,000, a gain of 230,000 over 1959. The freshman class totaled approximately 900,000. As college educators began to warn about increasing faculty shortages, attention was focused on the future of graduate education—the supply-line of college teachers.

The current annual turn-out of Ph.D's is approximately 9,000. Only about 60 per cent of these actually remain in academic work.

"The Trends of 1960" by Fred M. Hechinger.
The New York Times, January 1, 1961.

THE IMAGE OF THE FUTURE SECONDARY SCHOOL GUIDANCE PROGRAM

BY DAVID DONALD MALCOLM*

Although there are many implications for guidance in the NASSP commission booklet *Images of the Future*[1] and its companion film "And No Bells Ring," actual recommendations seem to stop with such general statements as "Staff Specialists as Needed." This article develops more specifically the "image of the future secondary school guidance program."

Taking a cue from the statement "Staff Specialists as Needed," this paper sets out to answer three questions. First, *how many* staff guidance specialists will be needed? Second, *what functions* will these guidance specialists be called upon to perform? Third, *what qualifications* will be required to perform these functions?

The Importance of Guidance

It is not necessary in this day and age to defend the importance of guidance. Evidence of public awareness of its importance is abundant. A recommendation for an increase in guidance has been included among the top ten recommendations of every recent governor's conference or White House conference. The federal government has recognized its importance to the national defense by appropriating millions of dollars annually under Title V of the National Defense Education Act of 1958. Programs financed by private sources have been springing up. The General Electric Company, for example, established at Syracuse University last year a Summer Fellowship Program for counselors similar to those previously established for teachers of science, mathematics, and economics.

The popular post-sputnik pastime of proposing panaceas for public education has produced widely divergent suggestions but the one com-

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[1] J. Lloyd Trump, *Images of the Future: A New Approach to the Secondary School*, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Washington, D.C., 1959.

mon element is a call for more counseling. Whether the proposal calls for five tracks, four, or three, whether for identifying the upper one per cent or eliminating the lower fifty per cent, whether for getting more students to enroll in physics, philosophy, or calisthenics—additional counselors will be needed to make the program work. While counselors may not be certain for whom they will be working in the future, they can be certain that they will be at work.

The Image of the Counselor-Pupil Ratio of the Future

How many guidance specialists will we expect to find constituting "staff specialists as needed" in *Images of the Future*? The best basis for prediction is historical perspective.

Although guidance services in the public schools began at the turn of this century, they did not become widespread until the early 1940's.

In the late '40's, the California State Department of Education, Bureau of Guidance, suggested the fantastic counselor-pupil ratio of 1:600 or 1 period of counseling/day for each 100 students. In 1958, just ten years later, it did not sound half as fantastic to hear H. B. McDaniel of Stanford speaking at U. S. C. call for a ratio of 1:100. By that time the average ratio in the State of California was already approaching 1:450, Conant was about to go on record recommending 1:250-300, and the National School Boards Association to recommend 1:350. And both the California School Administrators Association and the California Association of Secondary School Administrators are on record as recommending a 1:400 ratio.

If we examine these data and plot these points on a curve, where does the curve appear to be leading us? In 1938 it was possible to take a master's degree in education from a major university and to be virtually unaware of the existence of guidance; in 1948, the college teacher felt almost ridiculous in calling for a 1:700 counselor-pupil ratio; in 1958, McDaniel's goal of a ratio of 1:100 sounded not unreasonable. Where can we expect the 1968 point on our curve to be?

Taking the Trump Commission's 400-pupil-unit as a base, the Image of the Future Secondary School Guidance Program will have five full-time guidance positions or a 1:80 ratio.

The Image of the Guidance Team of the Future

The second question deals with the functions these guidance workers will be called upon to perform. Among the pressing concerns in guidance today, no one is given higher priority than the matter of clarification of role and function. Perhaps the most significant study already underway is the APGA sponsored nation-wide project headed by Gilbert Wrenn

of Minnesota operating under a $50,000 foundation grant. Under NDEA auspices, the coordinators of the pupil personnel services programs at the 19 California colleges currently accredited to offer the Pupil Personnel Services credential last year began a two-year study of this same topic. This group hopes that their findings may have major implications for counselor training programs throughout the State. Soon to be underway as a part of phase two of the current California State credential revision will be another study of this problem.

Obviously it would be presumptuous to attempt to anticipate in detail the reports of these and other important committees. Nevertheless, certain bold outlines already stand clear. For one thing, clarification of roles and functions is certain to result in more precise terminology. For example, in the near future the term "counseling" will no longer be applied to all the diverse functions guidance workers are called upon to perform but will be limited to those activities involving working directly with pupils, either one at a time or in small groups. The term "counselor" too must drop its current broad usage and come to refer only to the guidance worker performing this type of service and to him only at the times he is performing this part of his role.

It is already safe to predict that the outcome of current studies will lead to drastic realignment of guidance functions, probably under something similar to the following three general categories; first, the *counseling* function; second, the *consulting* function; and third, the *research* or data-gathering function. It is premature to assign the exact division of guidance time to be allocated to each of these three functions but a reasonably close guess would seem to be that we shall see about 40 per cent of guidance time devoted to counseling, and 30 per cent each devoted to consultant service and to research. To understand the rationale for this distribution, it is necessary to analyze these three functions.

The counseling function. The counseling function in the future will be reserved for those activities involved in working directly with pupils, usually one at a time but frequently in small groups, including any special guidance testing. In many respects, in this future stricter use of the term, the counseling office will come much more closely than it does now to resemble the college counseling services familiar on many campuses today. Like the college counseling service, it will become strictly a "staff" and not a "line" service. Like college counseling, it will rely a great deal more than it does today upon voluntary requests for service. Like college counseling, too, its function will be limited to two types of service: (1) vocational and educational testing and counseling leading to career planning, and (2) a sort of "psychological first aid," a term used to encompass both help with minor personal problems and some form of stop-gap assistance with deeper personality disturbances pending referral to more

appropriate agencies.

It will differ from the typical college counseling center chiefly in two respects. First, much more time will be devoted to parent conferences, sometimes with the pupil present, sometimes with the parent alone. Second, there will be much more provision for systematically extending the services to all pupils, and it is likely that, within the limits of the emphasis on voluntary participation, the future high school counseling service will deal more frequently with faculty referrals than does the typical college counseling service today.

The time allocated to the counseling function under the plan envisaged here amounts to approximately 30 hours per pupil spread over the three-year junior-high and three-year senior-high school periods. Since at least half as much time must be spent in preparation for and in writing up each counseling interview as is spent in the interview itself, the number of counseling hours available per pupil over this six year span is actually reduced to twenty. As schools achieve the goal of at least one parent conference yearly for each pupil, the number available drops to fourteen, or little more than one hour per pupil per semester.

In practice, it is not likely that spreading available interview time in this fashion will prove the most effective use of counseling services. Each pupil should, somewhere in each of his three-year secondary school units, be provided with a more intensive series of counseling sessions. Counseling internship programs in which counselors have been able to take all the time they want with every pupil with whom they work have shown that these interns require for straight educational and vocational testing and counseling alone a series of five sessions and that ten to twelve sessions is more typical. Obviously, even with a ratio of 1:80 with 40 per cent allocated strictly for counseling, if the service is going to be adequate, counselors will have to learn to make extensive use of group procedures.

The consulting function. Many of the duties assigned to today's misnamed "school counselor" are actually consulting functions and in the image of the future they are so recognized and so named. For the most part, consulting functions are those in which the guidance specialist works chiefly through other adults for the benefit of the child rather than directly with the child himself. For example, the guidance specialist serves as consultant to teachers on all curriculum study groups. He serves as consultant wherever there are special guidance units to be taught in the regular curriculum and in many instances may actually teach all or parts of these units himself. He serves as consultant to the school librarian in developing vocational information files. He also serves as consultant to individual teachers, assisting them in the understanding of and in the improving of their relationships with individual pupils.

The consequence of the identification of these duties as consulting rather than counseling will not be to create a hierarchy within the guidance team but rather to bring renewed emphasis to these important but all too often inadequately performed responsibilities. Clearer separation by function does not preclude that both may be performed by the same person although in the image of the future this may become less frequently the case than it is today. At any event, close coordination with ample provision for "feedback" will be essential.

The identification of the consulting function will also bring an end to much of the current confusion regarding the relationship between guidance and program-making or "grouping" and the relationship between guidance and discipline. The guidance consultant will play a major role in both of these areas. Nonetheless, in the image of the future, program-making in most instances and discipline in all cases are clearly designated as administrative responsibilities and the role of the guidance worker in relation to them is strictly that of consultant to the administration. Of course, in those rare instances in which program-planning remains entirely within the realm of pupil choice, it is still a guidance function. In today's secondary schools, however, program-making is becoming increasingly a matter of "grouping" pupils in class sections reserved for this or that ability or achievement level and as such is strictly administrative.

Some of the guidance consultant's duties will involve working directly with pupils but with an emphasis quite different from that of the counselor. The consultant will, for example, conduct case studies of individual pupils culminating in case conferences designed to involve all teachers and other staff members who can contribute to an understanding of the pupil studied. However, performance of such duties differs from the counseling function in several ways: first, the subject will typically have been chosen at the request of the administration or of some teacher and the study proceeds regardless of whether the subject chooses to participate voluntarily or not; second, the findings will typically result in recommendations for administrative action; finally, emphasis in the case conference part of the study will include in-service education and upgrading of the teachers and other staff members who participate.

Also included under the consulting function will be responsibility for various additional tasks such as the pre-admission contacts by which information is given to and obtained about incoming pupils while they are still enrolled in the feeder schools, and the orientation programs for these pupils when first they enter the new school.

The research function. The research function of the guidance team will be closely coordinated with, yet distinct from the research department which serves the school administration. Both will certainly make

use of the same data processing equipment, for example, and both may frequently involve the same personnel. But the responsibility of the guidance research worker will be gathering and processing those data which contribute directly to guidance.

One major aspect of this function will be group testing. Special individual and vocational testing, as already implied, will be part of the counseling function. The chief concerns here will be more rapid processing of test data and making them available in more readily accessible and more useful form. In addition, there will be continuous provision for conducting a variety of validity studies.

In the image of the future, there will be little major change in tests themselves; for the most part the tests being used will bear unmistakable resemblance to their present day ancestors, many of which still bear copyright dates from the 1920's. The big changes in testing will be of two sorts: first, there will be great expansion of the use of local norms in place of those supplied by test authors as data processing equipment becomes more widely available; second, there will be a shift to almost universal use of "prediction" or "expectancy" tables in which data are presented in a fashion similar to the actuarial tables employed by insurance companies today. In the school of the future, the counselor will no longer be tempted to tell the pupil that his test scores indicate that he can or cannot achieve success toward this or that goal; instead he will be able to point out to him that, of pupils with scores like his at this school in the past, such-and-such a percentage have achieved this or that degree of success.

But tests and data processing will not be the sole preoccupations of the guidance worker performing the research function. The school of the future will see increased emphasis on follow-up studies, regular programs for keeping up-to-date information from community job-market surveys, and much more emphasis on sociological research, especially in the all-important and hitherto much neglected area of value structures and value systems.

Additional guidance and services. It is important to point out that this discussion has dealt only with the secondary school guidance team itself and has not attempted to describe additional centralized guidance services which school districts of the future will also provide. It is, however, perhaps pertinent to note that the district school psychometrist, *per se*, is likely to become extinct as more and more of his functions are assumed by the counselor specialist. It is not unlikely, too, that the present school psychologist may find his role changing as better trained counselors with more adequate time at their disposal begin to handle all, or virtually all, of the more minor psychological problems. He may expect to devote his attention almost entirely to that smaller number of pupils with per-

sonality disturbances too severe for the personnel in the school building proper to handle. The present distinction between school psychologist and the licensed practicing clinical psychologist at that point will probably vanish. School social workers and/or visiting teachers will continue in much their present roles, especially in the elementary school where they will be available in markedly increased numbers.

The Image of the Qualifications of the Guidance Worker of the Future

For the third and final question, the qualifications of the guidance worker in the secondary school of the future are considered. Pre-service training will continue to consist of a broad general core area required of all guidance workers supplemented by intensive additional work in one or another of the three areas of specialization that have been delineated. In this respect, it will undoubtedly resemble the framework of the existing California General Pupil Personnel Services credential. Unquestionably, however, the period of preparation will be lengthened and will emphasize even more than at present the period of supervised internship experience.

The most important change will be the emergence of the concept of the *career guidance worker*. No longer will assignment to guidance duties be considered a routine step in the pathway leading to administration and less frequently than at present will the school administrator be recruited from the guidance ranks. The use of the guidance assignment as a sort of administrative reward must go. Adequate training will be required even for those assigned to guidance duties for only a small part of the school day. There will be no place for appointment of those teachers who, having lost stomach for combat *en masse*, seek to retreat to the relative sanctuary of the counseling office where at least they only have to face the enemy one at a time. Guidance workers who carry major responsibilities will be trained at least one year beyond the master's degree and probably hold a doctoral equivalent; other members of the team will hold at least a master's degree.

Summary

In summing up, then, the Image of the Future Secondary School Guidance Program sees a staff in the ratio of one professional specialist to every 80 pupils. For each 400-pupil-unit, five specialists will divide as a guidance team responsibility for performing the three greatly clarified basic roles of counseling, consulting, and research. These guidance specialists will be well trained. This Image is an achievable goal.

MOTIVATING THE UNDER-ACHIEVING GIFTED PUPIL IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

BY MARK C. SMITH*

Last year, in gathering material for a doctoral dissertation on "Problems Connected with Administering Special Programs for Gifted Junior High School Students," the writer visited seventy-four junior high schools throughout the State of California which have had or now have such programs. These schools represent all geographic and socio-economic areas of the State, and while many interesting and constructive approaches are being made to this important, and now very popular area of education, it was found that little or no provision is being made to handle one of its "knottiest" aspects, how to motivate the under-achieving gifted child. This is the student of high ability who scores well on standardized achievement tests yet fails to achieve satisfactorily in class.

Generally the practice is to schedule this student into a regular class if he fails to become stimulated in a special group. With varying degrees of success, several of the schools visited provide special counseling for this youngster. For the most part, however, there is record of very little real success in working with this type of student.

For several years the staff at La Cumbre Junior High School, Santa Barbara, California, had been concerned about the under-achieving gifted student. The problem had been encountered during the early development of the school's program for the gifted, but a number of special approaches to it had met with little success. Generally a pupil who had not achieved to capacity in a normal classroom situation was even less successful when put into a special class with achieving gifted students.

A committee which had been appointed within the school to study ways and means of making provision for the gifted, decided to set up a special class for under-achievers, to meet one period each day. For

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two reasons the subject area selected for this class was eighth-grade mathematics: first, because this course is primarily a review and enrichment area; and second, because one of the mathematics teachers had a half-time assignment in counseling and had demonstrated success in group guidance techniques. Sixteen students were chosen for this admittedly experimental study. Though these students had IQ scores upward of 128 and their average scores on arithmetic, language, and reading achievement were 1.5 or more years above the grade norms on each section of the test, they had achieved very few "A" marks during their seventh-grade year.

The La Cumbre staff believed that the root of the problem of the gifted under-achiever lay in his self-concept and in his level of aspiration. They further believed that this facet of his personality could be modified if school personnel worked closely with the student and his parents.

This special eighth-grade mathematics class for under-achievers devoted three periods each week to mathematics and two to discussion or seminar work. As a part of the seminar, the teacher explored such areas as: Why go to school? How does one improve his marks? Why should one try to get along with teachers? These were structured but operated basically as group guidance sessions with the explicit aim of building better self concepts and raising levels of aspiration.

In the first class session in the fall, the students were told that they had been selected because of their ability and thus would cover the mathematics work in less time than was usually devoted to that subject. The number of A marks received by the group in the seventh grade was listed and contrasted with the number in a similar group of achieving students.

After working on attitudes for several days, the teacher encouraged the students to set realistic goals for the first quarter marking period.

The group guidance approach was designed to build up the students' belief that they were able to achieve academically. During other class sessions they discussed their progress and how they could improve. They developed skills in oral presentation and research techniques. At marking periods the students discussed the marks they had received as compared with the goals they had set. The emphasis of the whole project was on the theme that the students were able to and could produce, and that there was much to be gained by being productive.

Individual conferences with parents were held to explore opportunities to improve performance in out-of-school situations. The approach was that of building a sense of worth by working at a job until it was finished; and that the habit of finishing a job well develops a sense of pride.

Since this was a pilot experiment, it was decided to keep as complete,

accurate records as possible of what was done, as a basis for the following year's project. For this reason some of the class sessions where group guidance was being used, as well as conferences and teacher discussions, were recorded.

When the study was initiated, it had been assumed that all sixteen students would be in attendance at La Cumbre Junior High School for both the eighth and ninth grade years. As it turned out, only six students remained at La Cumbre for the ninth grade year. Two students transferred to another school system and the remaining seven were transferred to a newly-erected high school in Santa Barbara and were scheduled into regular classes, there being no special classes for such students included in this school's curriculum. While this was not part of the original plan for the research, the committee felt that it strengthened the study. If progress made at La Cumbre could be maintained in another school, this should add validity to the evaluation of the experiment.

The six students who remained at La Cumbre were scheduled into a regular ninth-grade program making no special provision for their previous lack of achievement. This was done to determine whether the progress made was lasting or due only to the special situation which had been created for this class in the eighth grade year.

In order to determine the success of this class the marks made by the students were evaluated at the end of each semester of the eighth grade. The results of this first experiment were beyond the La Cumbre Committee's expectations. Of the sixteen students, eleven showed progress to some degree by the end of the eighth grade. Seven maintained this level of progress through the ninth grade year. It is noteworthy that one student who had made a total of three "A" marks in the seventh grade (all in non-academic subjects), had a straight "A" report card at the end of the second semester of the eighth grade. He was then transferred to the new school in Santa Barbara where, at the end of the first semester of the ninth grade, he was one of fourteen straight "A" students in a school of more than seven hundred.

Two of the six students who remained at La Cumbre achieved five "A" marks in the ninth grade: one of these had earned three non-academic "A's" in the seventh grade; the other one "A" in Industrial Arts for one quarter marking period.

The student who was transferred to Santa Barbara's new school and the two mentioned above, produced the most outstanding results during the first year of the experiment. Others were successful to a lesser degree. Five students did not respond with improvement.

In addition to improvement of marks, other gains not so easily measured by tests and marks were indicated by the teacher. Initially the teacher had found the pupils in this group lacking in self-confidence,

sense of responsibility, initiative, and stability. In addition they were absent more often than students of comparable ability who were achieving satisfactorily, and after such absence, they lacked the initiative to seek make-up work to cover the material they had missed. Their previous relations with teachers had been erratic. The group guidance teacher found that as a student began to achieve he tended gradually to lose these less desirable characteristics and acquire the more positive attitudes of other achieving students.

Since this approach proved substantially more successful than any previously tried at La Cumbre or encountered by the writer during his visits to other California junior high schools, it was decided that it should be continued during the current school year. Due to changes in teaching assignments, the subject area was shifted to general science. A recent evaluation shows comparable results again this year, and we at La Cumbre feel that if we continue this experimentation, adapting it as necessary to given circumstances, we will eventually come up with a solution worth passing along to others of our colleagues who are earnestly trying to find the key to what *does* make Johnny click.

THE ARTS—ESSENTIAL COMPONENT OF LEARNING

I wish to present the view that teaching people to think is not merely a question of training their intellects through the study of organized bodies of fact. This may very well teach them not to think but to memorize and accept what they are given, since all the work has been done for them and there is really nothing left to think about. The main problem is to teach people not only to think but to think for themselves, and to organize their own bodies of knowledge and experience. The intellect is not a separate faculty. It is an activity of the whole organism, an activity which begins in the senses with direct experience of facts, events and ideas, and it involves the emotions. The activity of thinking begins when an individual is impelled to think by the presence of questions which require answers for him. He begins thinking when he is involved in experiences which require him to place these in some kind of order. Until the individual becomes sensitive to experience and to ideas, until they mean something to him personally, or, to put it differently, until he becomes conscious of the world around him and wishes to understand it, he is not able to think creatively either about himself, or about his world. His sensibility, his values, his attitudes are the key to his intellect. It is for this reason that the arts, since they have most directly to do with the development of sensibility, are an essential component of all learning, including scientific learning.

—Harold Taylor, "Art and the Intellect." The Museum of Modern Art, N. Y. 1960.

ANALYZING THE DISTRIBUTION OF CLASS MARKS

BY GUY M. ROSE*

How should I grade my pupils? How meaningful are my grades? How do my grading distributions compare with those of other teachers of this same subject and level? Should every teacher grade in his own way, according to his own conscience, without interference? These questions are facets of the vast subject of evaluation of pupils. This article offers a plan for tackling one aspect of the evaluation procedure: analyzing the distribution of final class marks for ungrouped classes.

Hypotheses

1. For a population of pupils at a specified grade level, the distribution of the degrees of mastery in a subject area will fit the normal curve pattern.

2. A class will be considered as a random sample from a population of pupils at the specified grade level, barring information to the contrary. Such a class will be referred to as an ungrouped class. Contrary information may exist in classes where pupils can terminate their program either totally or in part, such as would be true at the levels of the junior college and the university.

Plan

The following plan is set up to apply to ungrouped classes in which the five letter-marks (A, B, C, D, F) are employed. There are several normal curve marking systems,[1] but since the Cajori system is most

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[1] C. C. Ross, *Measurement in Today's Schools* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947), p. 410.

widely known, the article will involve only this one. The Cajori distribution is 7 per cent A, 24 per cent B, 38 per cent C, 24 per cent D, 7 per cent F. Statistically, the F category has no other significance than being the lowest of the five categories.

If a teacher sincerely intends to assign marks to each class in exact conformity with the Cajori system, two difficulties immediately arise: (1) In a class of approximately 30 pupils, one child's mark accounts for more than 3 per cent of the total, and hence even one mark more or less, in the A or F category particularly, could throw off the distribution. (2) Every experienced teacher is aware of differences in the ability of classes in a given subject even when selectivity supposedly has not operated; some classes are simply a little "sharper" or "less sharp" than others. Therefore, a rigid application of the Cajori distribution to each class would be an injustice to the pupils of many classes.

Because of these two obstacles, many teachers simply choose to disregard any suggested percentages. And many principals, seeing the noticeable divergence of distributions among teachers of the same subject, appear equally reluctant to issue a dictum forcing conformity around an artificial percentage distribution system. The two obstacles really center about the same basic question: is there not some justifiable leeway in applying the Cajori distribution that would also have the effect of bringing the teachers' distributions closer together? Fortunately, the answer is *yes*.

We shall take the Cajori distribution per cents, not to be directly applied to each ungrouped class, but to be considered as the population per cents that each teacher should attempt to meet "in depth." In other words, over several semesters the distributions of a particular subject level should show conformity with the theoretical Cajori per cents. This trend-in-depth concept permits variations during any given semester.

How much leeway is justifiable in any given semester? Based on a statistical process,[2] it can be established that if 7 per cent is to be considered as the population percentage for A's, then in an ungrouped class of 30 pupils two times out of three the number of A's should be 1, 2, or 3; nine times out of ten the number should lie between 0 and 4 inclusive; ninety-nine times out of one hundred, between 0 and 5 inclusive.

Instead of considering the variation for the mark of B separately, we shall consider A + B, thereby minimizing the basis for certain rationalizations by narrowing the number of variables from five to three (A+B, C, D+F). If 31 per cent is to be the population per cent for A+B, then for that class of 30 pupils two times out of three the number of A's + B's

[2] Finding the level of significance with which a sample frequency deviates from an assumed population frequency.

should lie between 7 and 11 inclusive; nine times out of ten, between 5 and 13 inclusive; ninety-nine times out of one hundred, between 3 and 15 inclusive.

In the accompanying charts, the expectation factor of a particular number of A's (Figure I) and of A+B (Figure II) are shown for ungrouped classes ranging in size between 20 and 50 pupils. The two charts alone suffice for an analysis of a complete grading distribution since an analysis chart for F's would be identical to the analysis chart for A's, and correspondingly with a D+F chart and the A+B chart. The distribution of C's will have been analyzed indirectly following analysis of the other four marks.

EXPECTATION OF A's IN UNGROUPED CLASSES

OF SIZE 20 TO 50

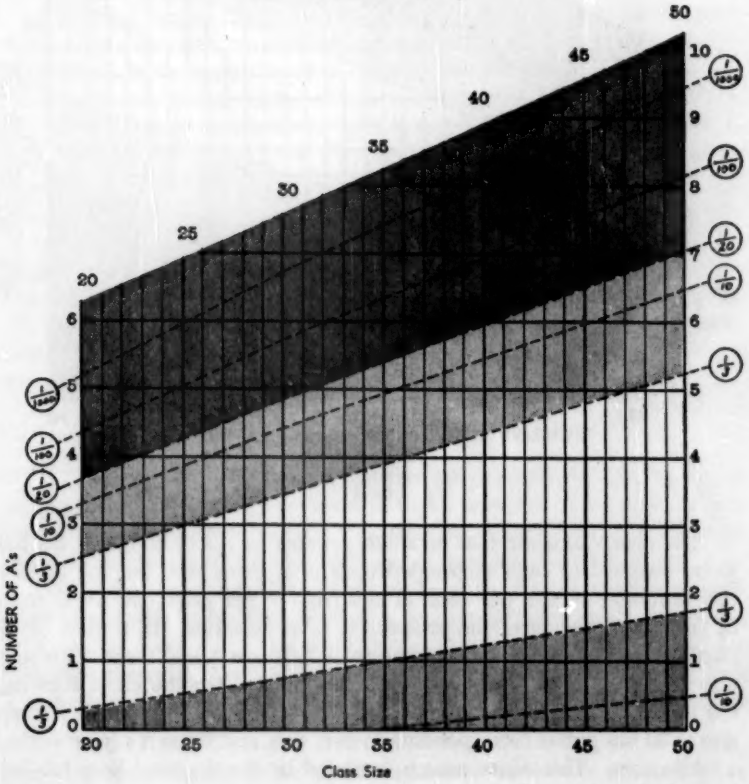

Fig. 1

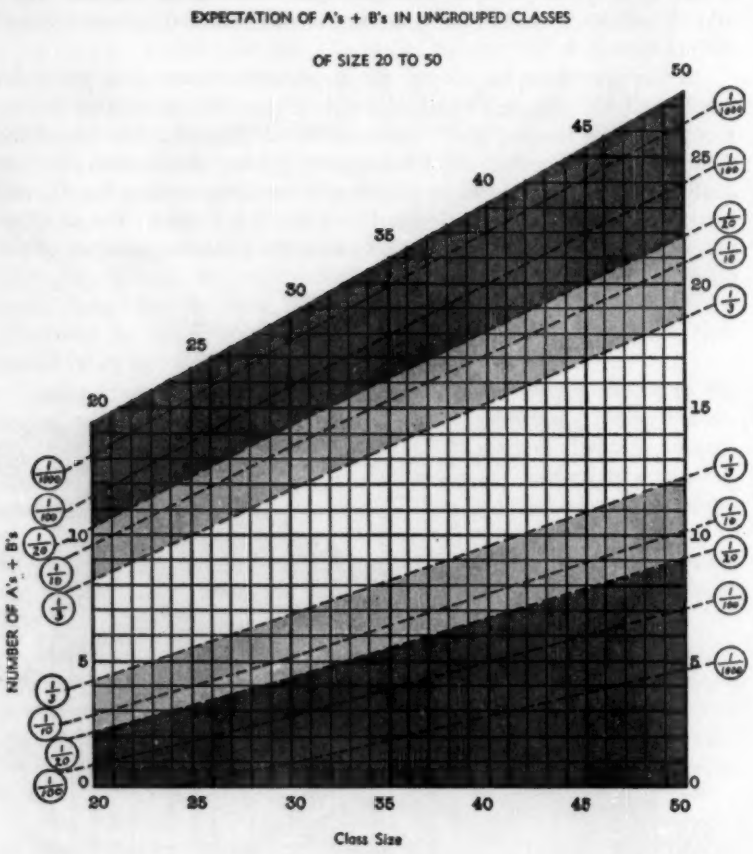

Fig. 2

The charts indicate that no single number of A's or of A's + B's has to be assigned to each ungrouped class of a given size, but the greater the deviation of the per cent of A's from 7 per cent (or A+B from 31 per cent), the rarer the probability of justification. In a class of 30 pupils, two A's is nearest 7 per cent of 30, but one A and three A's would also be expected to occur with great frequency. On the chart showing the expectation of A's (Figure I), the vertical line representing a class size of 30 has points corresponding to one, two, and three A's lying within a white zone. This white zone is bounded by the diagonal lines labeled 1/3 which indicate that any number of A's lying within these lines has

an expectation greater than one time in three. Zero A's or 4A's is expected between 1/3 and 1/10 of the time, and lies within a light-gray zone which is bounded by the diagonal lines labeled 1/3 and 1/20. Five or more A's would be expected rarely as evidenced by the relation of those points to the diagonal lines in the dark-gray zone.

Specific Examples of Analysis

Teacher X has an ungrouped class of 30 pupils in 7th grade English. The following numbers of grades were given: 2A's, 8B's, 11C's, 7D's, 2F's. For a class of 30 pupils, 2A's (Figure I) is within the white zone; 10 A's + B's (Figure II) is within the white zone; 2F's is within the white zone (on the A's chart, Figure I); 9 D's + F's is within the white zone (on the A+B chart, Figure II). Teacher X's distribution of grades lies wholly within the limits of greatest expectation.

Teacher Y has an ungrouped class[3] of 37 fifth grade pupils. In arithmetic, the following number of grades were given: 6A's, 7B's, 20C's, 4D's, 0F's. For a class size of 37 pupils, 6A's is in the dark-gray zone, showing an expectancy factor of less than 1/20; 13 A's + B's lies within the white zone. No F's is in the light-gray zone, showing an expectation factor of about 1/10; 4 D's + F's lies in the dark-gray zone showing an expectation factor of 1/100. Teacher Y's distribution indicates too many A's and, by implication, too few B's since the A+B is within the limits of greatest expectation. The no-F's part is lower than expected, but because of non-statistical considerations at her school concerning the assignment of F's, the teacher knows this to be an acceptable number of F's. The D's + F's is the greatest deviation from the normal distribution, and failure to identify the lowest 7 per cent as F's does not alter the responsibility to identify the lowest 31 per cent as D+F.

General Comments About the Problem

If the hypothesis of a normal distribution of marks for the population of pupils of a specific grade level is to be accepted, then these charts can serve as a means of keeping the attention of each teacher focused on the reasonableness of his distributions, or, perhaps the lack of it.

When the charts are used in supervision of teacher distributions, much discretion needs to be exercised. If a teacher of many years experience in a subject level states that a particular class deserves an unusual distribution of marks, it would seem a more defensible position than if such a statement were made by a teacher of little experience. Those teaching

[3] This is not to imply that the teacher might not divide her own class into groups within her classroom for instructional purposes.

a subject area for the first time should be encouraged to distribute their marks so that each will fall near the middle of the white zone. The basic idea is that the Cajori distribution represents a "center of gravity" for each of the marks, about which reasonable fluctuations are to be expected. A supervisor might choose to announce that he will accept without question distributions lying wholly within the white zone, that teachers should be prepared to justify distributions falling within the light-gray zone, and that teachers are to use the numbers in the dark-gray zone only when advance approval has been obtained.

There are some subjects of a non-academic nature which because of their goals should not be forced into such a rigorously established distribution system.

COMING ISSUES IN 1961

Many issues remain unsolved. Federal aid to education will be one of the major controversies of the next session of Congress. The National Defense Education Act, which currently ignores practically all education outside the areas of science and foreign languages, faces strong pressure for a broadened scope. The crisis in medical education is just beginning to become a national issue.

There is great pressure on American education to fulfill new and vital foreign obligations. What used to be a series of helpful efforts by single scholars is rapidly turning into mass action which make educational assistance as important as economic aid.

In 1960 it became clear that laissez faire in American education, for students, teachers and institutions, has come to an end. The school reform itself, though it has begun with isolated subjects, will inevitably turn, not only into national reform of subject matter, but eventually into a rethinking and replanning of the entire education panorama from kindergarten through graduate school. Out of this, it is now clear, are emerging national goals and national patterns of education.

"National Patterns Are Emerging from Process of School Reform"
Fred M. Hechinger, *The New York Times*, January 1, 1961.

ON THE FUNCTIONS OF A SCHOOL COUNSELOR

BY A. GARTH SORENSON*

American public schools face the most difficult task of any in the world for three reasons. They have to accommodate the most divergent student population. Their work load increases more rapidly than their resources. And some of their objectives are, superficially at least, inconsistent with one another. Their student population varies widely in aptness, interest, and performance. They face continued pressure to teach more subjects and more skills and to provide more services. And they must help students to become both more compliant and more individualistic. On the one hand we expect the schools to make students more fully aware of the structure, history, ideals and conventions of our society. We want them to learn how to behave as "responsible" adults. On the other hand we expect schools to help students develop a wide variety of talents, to become critical thinkers, and to become more independent and self-determining. Of the two general objectives, socialization vs. development of the individual, the latter is the more important, the harder to achieve, and the more likely to be neglected.

It is true that the schools do not bear the entire educational burden. As in other societies, we have non-academic institutions which educate. But their energies are devoted for the most part to shaping beliefs and attitudes, and to telling the young person how to behave in a variety of situations. Relatively little effort goes toward teaching him to question, to gather and analyze data, or how to appraise realistically his own capabilities, limitations, and ambitions. The student who has become "socialized" but who has not learned to question and to solve problems independently, will be governed by ignorance, superstition, fear, and

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propaganda. His morals and tastes will be those of the crowd, if not of the mob. Like the most dependent adolescent, he will have to rely on what others think—on "authority"—in his educational planning, his choice of a career, and even in his choice of leisure time activities.

The intellectual objectives (using that term in its broadest sense) of the school must be protected and given highest priority. Because if the school does not attend to them, no other agency will. That is not to say that these objectives can be achieved by turning backward to the educational philosophies and practices of yesteryear. Nor can it be assumed that these objectives can be accomplished merely by increasing the supply of good teachers. Today's high school teacher, who faces five or six crowded classes a day, who teaches his subject not as an end in itself, but toward the goal of making the student a better problem solver, cannot accomplish all of the school's intellectual objectives single handed. He must have help from a number of people, including the school counselor.

The school counselor does not play the same role as the teacher (although a teacher-counselor will alternate roles). His training and techniques are different. He brings to his job insights and skills not possessed by all teachers. He creates for his work a somewhat different atmosphere. He may have different short range goals. At times he may appear to have freedom of action and decision not possessed by all teachers. But he is not free to determine his own functions, and his long range goals are those possessed by all teachers. His salary is paid by the community, and he is responsible to the community in the same way as are the teacher and the administrator.

The counselor is committed to the individual student in a way not typical of other members of society. His role is not that of parent, principal, policeman, pastor, or psychiatrist. Nor is he a clinical psychologist or a family social worker. Indeed his only excuse for calling himself a counselor is that he fills a role and performs a service which is not performed by these other members of society. He gives information, but he frequently refrains from determining how it is to be used. He appraises a student, but does not judge him. He works with disciplinary cases, but does not punish. He helps a student to plan, but does not make choices for him. An exception may be when the counselor shifts to the role of advisor of program. He helps the student to examine ethical problems, but does not prescribe a dogma. There are many people to do these other things, and the counselor makes referrals accordingly.

If the counselor does his work well, both the teacher and his administrator will be able to de their jobs better. But he does not help them by shaping their teaching or administrative duties. The counselor does not practice medicine, psychiatry, or family therapy. He does his work

in the school, during school hours, and mainly with students. He frequently gives a parent information about his child, but he does not try to change the parent's child-rearing practices.

The counselor makes the elective system work as it was intended to work. He helps students, teachers, and parents to become aware of the existence of special talents in students, and of the limitations and problems which may interfere with their accomplishment. He interviews. He administers psychological tests. He interprets the significance of past behavior. When a student is not performing as well as someone believes that he can perform, the counselor may work with the student to help him to determine what, if any, are the factors which interfere with his performance. The counselor's objective is not so much to solve the immediate problem for the student as to teach him to solve it and related problems for himself. For example, it is not the counselor's job to try to deal with a parental conflict which appears to be affecting a child's behavior. It may be his job to help the youngster to learn to face and deal with the realities of this conflict and with other aspects of his existence.

In committing himself to the integrity of the individual student, the counselor is not encouraging anarchy, nor teaching a student that he can ignore the pressures of society. But he is working within a framework of values which is as broad and as tolerant as a democracy will permit, rather than within the narrower conventions of a particular religious or socio-economic group. In his role the counselor does permit more freedom of expression and of choice than is possible in a classroom, or a church group, or perhaps in most homes. But he is not unaware that any given society will not tolerate certain behavior patterns.

In brief, the counselor helps the student to become a better problem solver. He focuses on problems which may interfere with classroom performance, but which cannot be appropriately considered in the classroom. He is an expert on educational and vocational planning. He helps the student who needs help in learning to deal with the everyday pressures and conflicts generated through interpersonal relations, to discover alternatives which had not occurred to him before. He helps the student to decide what kind of person he wants to be, and how to achieve that goal.

WHAT'S HAPPENING IN CALIFORNIA SECONDARY SCHOOLS

BY WILLIAM N. McGOWAN*

College orientation nights are oftentimes something of a problem. Mr. Burk Faraola, Head Counselor, *Las Lomas High School, Walnut Creek,* has prepared this excellent description of practice at Las Lomas High.

The counseling department of Las Lomas High School in Walnut Creek, California, recently initiated a new plan of educational guidance for parents of senior students.

In previous years, it has been the practice of college admissions officers to meet with parents to explain admission procedures and admission requirements for the various colleges in the area. However, because of the increased number of schools to serve and the press of other responsibilities, admissions offices for most universities have discontinued this practice. This has left a void which the counseling staff at Las Lomas found difficult to handle by individual contact with students of the senior class.

Las Lomas is a high school located in an upper middle-class suburban area with about 70 per cent of its graduates continuing on to further higher education. The placement of these students in college, while not the primary concern of the secondary school, is extremely important to the parents of the community.

It was found, in past experience, that parents were not aware of admission procedures and tended to confuse the responsibilities that must be carried out by the parent and student with those which the secondary school would normally assume.

This became evident when it was found that students were missing College Board Examinations because of their failure to register, although they had been repeatedly informed as to times and dates. It was also found, in general, that students did not fully realize the implications of

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a missed test or the failure to file properly for admission or to send in scholarship applications on time. Hence, it was felt that a meeting of senior parents would serve a number of purposes.

First, the staff sensed a growing apprehension on the part of parents about the possibility of "getting into college." This is easily understood, since most of the popular magazines of the day have carried articles about the increasing difficulty of college admissions, creating, in effect, a situation just short of panic on the part of anxious parents in a community such as ours.

Second, counselors found that admission procedures are more complicated and require a great deal of attention to detail. Often it is difficult to tell from college bulletins exactly what requirements are, even to estimate if a student will be accepted.

Third, it was found that the number, variety, and method of applications for scholarships was extremely complex, and that it was almost impossible to reach every student with all of the information. With these factors in mind, the staff planned a meeting from which they hoped would come an understanding on the part of parents as to their role in the matter of college admissions, an understanding of the limitations of the counseling staff and further understanding of the entire picture of college admissions at the present time.

In order to accomplish this, it was agreed to proceed on the assumption that, for every student graduating from Las Lomas High School, there is an opportunity for further education.

The counseling staff of five met and reviewed the various kinds of information necessary to present to parents to accomplish its purpose, and selected the following topics to be covered at the meeting.

1. GENERAL PROCEDURE IN PREPARING FOR COLLEGE.
   (This includes what could be done for the student, and what students and parents must do for themselves.)
2. EXAMINATIONS USED FOR ENTRANCE TO COLLEGE.
   (A thorough explanation of the registration procedure of the CEEB and ACT . . . a review of acceptable scores and information relative to test requirements at various colleges.)
3. SCHOLARSHIPS, THEIR AVAILABILITY AND PROCEDURE FOR APPLYING.
   (A thorough explanation of the CEEB College Scholarship Service Form, closing dates at various colleges, where to write for information, and how to obtain letters of recommendation.)
4. A REVIEW OF ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS, FILING DATES AND EXPENSES FOR THE FOLLOWING GROUPS OF COLLEGES.

A. University of California and the State College system.
B. Small four-year independent colleges.
C. Large four-year independent colleges.
D. Public and private junior colleges.

5. MILITARY SERVICE AND COLLEGE.
6. SUMMARY OF COLLEGE COST INFORMATION.

The colleges included in the report were selected on the basis of placement of Las Lomas students in previous years.

The written material was brought together in the manner of a research report of about 40 pages and each parent attending was given a copy for reference at the meeting and for use at home.

The staff of five counselors each presented his assigned area of the report, and at the conclusion served as a panel to answer specific questions from the audience. The formal presentation and question and answer period was about one and one-half hours in length, at which point the meeting was adjourned and interested parents were invited to remain and discuss their particular case with the counselor assigned to their graduating senior.

In a later evaluation session, the counseling staff felt that in general:

1. Parents are confused and anxious to become a partner with the counselor in preparing their graduate for admission to college.
2. With specific dates and requirements in their hands, parents are insisting that their students meet the deadlines.
3. Parents know their area of responsibility in preparing for college admission.
4. Parents are less apprehensive about a place in college for their children.
5. Parents have a clear picture of scholarships.
6. Counselors have a better understanding of the needs of students and parents relative to placement in particular colleges.
7. Parents have a much better understanding of the requirements and expenses of colleges, and thus can narrow their selection down to those schools to which the student is most likely to be admitted. This, it was hoped, would eliminate the "shotgun approach" and result in considerable saving of filing fees to the parent, as well as time and effort on the part of the counseling staff.
8. Finally, it was felt that excellent rapport had been established with this group of parents, which was later substantiated by parents calling in to express their appreciation for our interest and help with what they consider to be a difficult problem. The staff agreed that, in coming years, the parents of junior students should be encouraged to attend the meetings.

SYMPOSIUM

The Educational Program in the New Decade

The development of an adequate curriculum for the high school stands near the head of the list of priorities for strengthening American secondary education. While responsibility for this cannot be assumed by any one group, a special group variously called curriculum coordinators, directors, or consultants has been designated to assume leadership. In California their professional organization is known as the California Association of Secondary School Curriculum Coordinators. Each year they sponsor a State Conference which takes place immediately preceding the State Conference of the California Association of Secondary School Administrators, an organization with which they are officially affiliated. The main attention of CASSCC is directed to the educational program of the high school. They work closely with the Curriculum Committee of CASSA.

The symposium this month has been a joint undertaking of the Curriculum coordinators and the curriculum committee of the secondary school administrators in which they have outlined what they consider to be some of the most important issues, problems, and promising lines of development in the movement underway to strengthen high school education. Special appreciation is expressed to Louis J. Rubin, Consultant in Secondary Education, Ventura County Schools, Ventura, California, who is also a member of the Editorial Board of the *Journal*, who served as coordinator for the symposium.

THE STATE OF AFFAIRS IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

BY LOUIS J. RUBIN*

The previous decade has been one heavily colored by debate, controversy, and resulting indecision. We come now in the current decade to the hour of encounter. Moreover, we come to it not because the argument has been resolved, or because we are ready for action, but because a chain of societal events compels us to act. As the case occasionally has been before in the history of public education, society is taking the attitude that the curriculum is much too important to be left to educators.

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To the extent that schools inevitably reflect the point of view prevailing in a given culture at a given time, a period of alteration is certain. The significant point is that the alteration is likely to occur outside of, or in spite of, the efforts of the curriculum worker. The provisions of the NDEA and the influence of groups like the Ford Fund for the Advancement of Education and the Carnegie Corporation are unquestionably to have a striking impact upon the character of the curriculum. Beyond this, pressure for an ultra-conservative approach similar to the one advocated by the Council for Basic Education will also have a measure of effect. Thus, language laboratories, Conant-inspired standards, teaching machines, televised instruction, and content revision in science and mathematics have already been thrust upon the curriculum specialist. For a time we are to become, in large part, interpreters and executors of lay-sponsored change. Hopefully, we shall be able to accomplish this without abdicating our sense of what is important in the education of a student and without forgetting that society exists for the individual, rather than the individual for his society.

The modification of the curriculum will evolve to an extent around a return to things past and correspondingly will sacrifice some of our accumulated growth. There is a strong tendency, in a period of national anxiety, to revert to practices which existed in a more stable time, and education is likely to be scapegoated somewhat. A certain amount of pouring old wine in new bottles will take place but the clamor for a return to fundamentals is too loud to go unheeded. Whil we must offer leadership in promoting valuable innovation it is imperative that we continue to battle for our convictions and to champion sharp thinking. There can be no greater folly than that which allows people to labor under the notion that international turmoil can be ameliorated through a program of compulsory algebra in the high school.

We are at that point where arguments over "child-centered" and "society-centered" curriculums are nonsensical. Similarly, controversy over "what shall the high school teach?" and "value learning versus factual learning" is equally absurd. We have gained much from our debates of the past but the gain can be counted as profit only with intelligent application. Each argument has significance and our task is to knead together the formula which brings us closest to our target. In short, the curriculum in the current decade needs to be eclectic rather than doctrinal; everything that offers a promise of value is germane to the problem. The curriculum must reflect upon what is now known about learning; upon the verified failures of present practice; upon whatever evidence we can turn up with new research; and upon advanced teaching systems at our disposal. The trick will be to avoid a feeling of proprietorship over the way things are currently done and to unfetter ourselves from decadent old

loves and promiscuous new ones. The solution to the enigma lies not in old or new, in permissiveness or rigidness, but in a selected fusion of the best of each.

A number of dominant ideas, although not new, have recently received widespread endorsement and these bid fair promise of constituting a framework around which advantageous curriculum development will take place. For example, it now seems generally accepted that no child should be obstructed from learning as rapidly as he is able, or from pursuing any program of learning that is of special significance to him. The meaning of this goes well beyond our ordinary concept of the gifted. It implies that our large-scale approach toward educating all of our youth has sacrificed the elasticity necessary to provide each student with a tailor-made learning sequence.

Our general position on individual differences is related to this point. Traditionally, the concept of individual difference has meant little more than the fact that children have different requirements and progress at different rates. There is reasonable hope that, somewhere in the future, this concept can be enlarged to the place where each student is conceived of as a unique organism whose learning program ought to be escorted with great care. Instead of grouping students, on the basis of one or two factors, into a somewhat smaller but still highly impersonal track the entire opportunity range of the comprehensive school will be sifted in order to find the combination of activities appropriate for each student. Additionally, one other dimension of individual difference should gain increasing attention: individuality in the sense that every student achieves a high degree of self-knowledge. The tenets of the social sciences make it abundantly clear that self-knowledge is vital to maturity and ultimately to wisdom. Individual difference, in other words, should be assessed not only for the purpose of directing students to appropriate experiences but also in order to make them more aware of their private psychological complexion and their special gifts. This ought to be accomplished with guidance of a superior sort that does not become confused with junior-grade psychiatry.

Another trend of import is evident in the approach taken toward recent revisions of subject-matter content in the sciences. Not only are the attempts to update content and method noteworthy, but the process is equally significant. In the major attempts to revise content in physics, biology, chemistry, and mathematics high school teachers, curriculum specialists, and top-flight minds in the subject have pooled their efforts. While collaboration of this sort is not new, there has been an extraordinary participation in curriculum planning by men who stand at the front rank of work in their respective disciplines. Paralleling this, distinguished figures in the psychology of thinking, have taken a renewed interest in

the problem of learning. As a consequence, the teams have been preoccupied, not only with content selection, but also with efficiency in teaching, the structure of a given body of knowledge, and the validity of our traditional concepts of readiness and transfer. The revised curriculums demonstrate a strong effort to emphasize the basic ideas that lie at the heart of the subject. The underlying assumption is that such ideas are as simple as they are potent and that intellectual progress comes from continually revisiting these ideas in progressively more complex forms. The suggestion is that fourth-grade children can cope with the principles of topology and set theory, not in formal language, but in the intuitive grasp of the ideas at their core. It is only a matter of time before other subjects will be subjected to similar overhaul. From the point of view of the curriculum specialist there is much to be grateful for in the trend. Not only can we profit handsomely from the insight of research scholars, but at the same time we are able to acquaint an increasingly vocal and influential group with the intricacies of public school teaching. We would be foolish to underestimate the importance of becoming more involved with all groups that propose solutions different from ours—involvement, not in the sense of defection, but in the sense of a mutual exchange of ideas.

Perhaps our most critical problem is the need for research of high quality. The crisis in our national security is almost certain to be long-range and public concern over the curriculum will be of parallel duration. Since a period of concern invariably results in tampering of some sort, alteration of the curriculum is inevitable. We have altogether too little evidence upon which to base such change and the hour of encounter may well be characterized by a degree of wheel-spinning. Only through much careful research can we hope to minimize waste. We are in great want for ways in which to transfer the objectives of education into common everyday classroom practices that give some guarantee of achieving the desired end. Much research must consequently take place at the critical level of the classroom. When one scans the reported research of the last few years it becomes evident that the classroom is seemingly an undesirable place to perform research—the need is nonetheless crucial.

We must find out how to analyze a subject in order to determine the concepts and proficiencies that are most useful to the learner. Some concepts serve as a basis for advanced learning and some do not. Moreover, some are common to several subjects and we need to learn how to offer them in the curriculum so that the individual subjects are served and so that useless repetition does not take place.

The capacity of organized business for salesmanship and the American penchant for gadgetry are such that the classroom is soon to be saturated with mechanical aids: closed circuit television, linguaphones,

and teaching machines, or as Gardner more accurately puts it, "self-teaching devices." There is a great inherent potential in such devices but we know precious little about fitting them intelligently into the learning scheme. It seems clear that as a dispenser of facts the teacher is now a second-rate apparatus; machines perform the function with greater efficiency. Since the student always participates actively, an entirely new pattern of individualized instruction is in the offing. When we master effective use of machines the role of the teacher will shift focus sharply. Perhaps the greatest challenge to the period ahead is to learn to use mechanical aids well and correspondingly to redefine the essential tasks of the teacher.

Finally, attention should be drawn toward the failure of the high school to develop a genuine commitment to culture. While our power to resist the mandates of groups who want the schools to turn out more students of a specific mold is modest, our power to etch the intellectual character of the future is unrivaled. Only rarely do we produce in our ultimate product an unconditional love for learning. A vast number of citizens—among them teachers and holders of doctorates—never read a serious book after their formal education is over. The curriculum, if it is to contribute at all to intellectual posterity, must fashion sure attachments to the arts and to important ideas. We have made some progress in recent years in that egghead is no longer quite so dirty a word, and art and the humanities are no longer regarded as the special province of spinsters and sissies. The problem is to ferret out whatever it is in our approach to teaching that causes learning to be regarded as a painful means to an end, rather than as the most desirable of all ends. A few of our students prize learning for the length of their days—that all do not is possibly our greatest sin.

PSYCHOLOGICAL TESTING GROWS

Psychological testing programs throughout the country have grown to a point where almost 130,000,000 tests have been given this year, or nearly three tests for every child in the first grade through college. To take a closer look at some of the questions raised by the increasing emphasis on testing, a joint committee has been formed under the sponsorship of Chief State School Officers, the American Association of School Administrators and the National Association of Secondary School Principals.

Among the topics to be explored by the committee are possible duplication resulting from the great number of tests administered, whether an approved list of tests might be issued and how tests influence the curriculum.

—*N. Y. Times*, Dec. 11, 1960.

THE TEACHER AND THE CURRICULUM

BY ROBERT W. FERRIS*

Not long ago I heard our superintendent compare the curriculum with a cemetery because although we are forever adding to it we are afraid to disturb it much. Change is inevitable, its precise degree and nature are still to be determined by the etiological factors now operative. I believe, however, that at this point the critical force in curriculum change is teacher involvement. Most teachers are uneasy, not only over their responsibility in the involvement, but equally over their actual opportunity to contribute to desirable change.

A small minority want to be told what to do and, in some cases, how to do it. They believe that the articulate "big voices" in education ought to order changes into being. Such teachers conceive of themselves as technicians paid to execute a prescribed task. The nature and value of the task concerns them little. Others, however, feel that the "big voices" ought to be the architects of design and they, the teachers, the craftsmen responsible for the interpretation. In the actual teaching process they can then affect the design with their personal touch, with the ultimate of their art and cunning.

The nature of the involvement is of prime importance; let it be real rather than pseudo-democratic. There is nothing so wearisome to the teacher with stacks of ungraded papers and uncompleted preparations than involvement in curriculum meetings that seem to start nowhere and go nowhere. The wasted time contributes notably to the professional dissatisfaction of the classroom teacher concerned immediately with the 140-odd students he will meet tomorrow and the day after. Leadership that has a set mind but that must make a window-case of the democratic process merely plagues the sincere teacher. If the mind is set, summon him only when his small bit of fact is needed and when there is reason

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to believe that it fits into the design. Involve him only when his participation can produce immediate benefits for his students. If the mind is not set, however, but open, treat him not with the cosmetics of pseudo-democratic leadership, but with the honest forthrightness and integrity of authentic research. He is, after all, the critical case in point. He knows perhaps better than anyone else the subtleties and nuances of the task; most importantly, he knows wherein lies success and failure, strength and weakness, in his own teaching venture. The design is no better than his interpretation and his dedication to its rightness. More than anything else he wants time to prepare and time to teach, soberly, industriously, and as effectively as he can.

The ineptness of teacher involvement often results in distorted attitudes toward the teaching role. Let me, for example, describe four arbitrary groups: (1) "Tell me and I'll do it"; (2) "Get tough"; (3) "The confused ones"; and (4) "The self-directed."

"Tell me and I'll do it" teachers long for the security of a carefully detailed course of study to follow. They want a single basic text thick enough to last the year and a teacher's manual with all the answers. Moreover, they welcome a list of films to show every Friday—preferably those which will last the entire period. They screech like peacocks if their students come to them so poorly trained that the text is inadequate for some members of the class. They storm the guidance center and curse the counselors who were "stupid" enough to place such students in their classes. They check out books the first day of school, put up a few color prints on the walls, circle the school holidays on the calendar. On the second day the students start page one of chapter one. They own a file cabinet of time-tested mimeographed tests. In June the texts are collected, grades turned in, and colored prints returned to storage. Their classes are often as dull as faculty meetings. But these teachers are safe; they are secure; and their involvement is limited to the faculty socials.

The "Tough" teachers have another answer. By their tenacious adherence to the highest of standards in terms of quality and quantity of work, they satisfy themselves that they are meeting the challenge of the times. They are conditioning students to the shock of the freshman year at college, or to the cold, cruel demands of the business world. Gradually they acquire a reputation. They are tough and everyone knows it. Counselors are afraid to put into their classes any students who may have difficulty. Thus, their classes are saturated with the very best students in the school. They pour it on, relentlessly. Students keep up or transfer to other sections. By comparison their classes are small and their students quite competent. Nonetheless, they continue to mete out grades that make even the best students wince with pain. Student confidence is often undermined. Teachers from other segments of the curriculum are upset be-

cause their own students do not have time to complete assignments. The "tough" teachers have priority on students' time: students are afraid not to do their assignments first. The problem is often made more complex because the "tough" teachers' students brag to other students about "all the work they have to do," and students are led to confuse tortuous toil with significant learning. But the tough ones have a ready answer to the criticism of "baby sitting."

"The confused ones" are those who are caught up in the dilemmas of preparing their students adequately for the next teacher. Somehow they feel they should teach in a more interesting way. The awesome body of knowledge seems impossible to shovel into the student's cranial cavity. They recognize that great advancements have been made in the psychology of learning, but they are uncertain as to how they should be applied. The need for good citizens haunts them. They are fascinated by what other teachers may be doing with multisensory aids to learning. They are a bit confused by the thematic approaches to units in new textbooks. Long lists of new additions to the library entice them, but they haven't time to read many of these new books or to explore the new materials. New approaches and startling theories presented at institutes and in workshops tend to reinforce their own sense of inadequacy. They sometimes experiment with new approaches in the classroom, but they find themselves apprehensive over the artificiality of the situation. They cannot tolerate a "three ring circus" classroom organization. They are impatient with student bumbling in the group process. And when the wheels spin, when there seems to be no traction, the thought returns to haunt them: "How will I ever prepare this class for the next teacher?" In short, they are victimized by incomplete involvement.

Finally, there are the "Self-directed" teachers. They appear to be as concerned with changes in their students as with changes in the curriculum. They know their subject thoroughly enough to attack ideas from a variety of approaches, including the point of view of the student. They are so enthusiastic about teaching that their students become enthusiastic about learning. They have clearly defined their objectives in terms of their own inspirations concerning student needs and abilities. They have learned from past and present interaction with their classes how to affect the heads and the hearts of their students. They are interested in the dignity and worth of each individual and in the individual's growth towards mature adulthood. They will, therefore, spend hours considering students' work, cultivating individual and collective interests and talents. They stimulate student desire to learn and suggest ways for students to continue to learn without teacher guidance. They bring out the best in young people because they give their best. They instill confidence because they appear to know where they are going and why.

THE ADMINISTRATOR AND THE CURRICULUM

BY ROBERT D. MORGANS*

Seldom can one pick up a book on secondary school curriculum or administration without reading the oft repeated phrases, "Curriculum development is primarily the responsibility of the school administrator," or, "The administrator must assume the role of the educational leader of the school." We, as secondary school administrators, read this, and I have rarely found an administrator who did not sincerely believe in it. But do we practice it? Are we prone to delegate it to specialists? Do we feel uncomfortable in discussing it with our staff and the lay public? In the press of time, are we in a sense abdicating educational leadership? I do not believe so. On the contrary, I believe there is considerable evidence that secondary school administrators are playing a more vital role in curriculum development than ever before. Let us look briefly at some of these indications, at some of the reasons underlying this increased interest, and finally, let me set forth a few suggestions for further administrative participation in curriculum development.

The most striking indication of heightened administrative activity lies in the active leadership evident in various administrator organizations. Each year brings an increase in the number of members and the work of the California Association of Secondary School Administrators' Curriculum Committee. C.A.S.S.A. members actively seek membership on this Committee, in spite of the fact that it means many long hours of attending meetings, research, and professional writing. The active membership of this Committee now numbers more than sixty administrators. One has only to look at the 1959-60 *Annual Report* of this group to perceive that

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educational leaders are seeking curriculum information, and, moreover, devoting considerable effort towards its dissemination in order that their fellow administrators may also be better informed. The widespread endorsement and use by administrators, teachers, and consultants, of the recently published "New Developments in Secondary Mathematics," produced by the Mathematics Subcommittee of this C.A.S.S.A. Curriculum Committee, constitutes a notable indication of recognized educational leadership. Equally graphic signs are evident in the work of other professional bodies.

The California Association of School Administrators two years ago set up a Committee on Instruction, which has now become one of the standing committees of the Association. The scholarly statement of this group, *The Superintendent's Responsibility for Instruction,* which has recently been published, is a most valuable guide to superintendents not only in California, but throughout the nation. The California Junior College Association has its Committee on the Improvement of Instruction, which is continuing to assume greater leadership and recognition. Still another example is found in the recent publications of the California Elementary School Administrators Association describing the trend toward direct leadership in curriculum growth. And finally, when the four major administrative organizations in California sought ways to work cooperatively, one of the major joint committees established was that of the Cooperative Committee on Instruction and Curriculum.

Aside from the pronounced trend toward increasing concern with the school curriculum on the part of the professional organizations, administrators are to be found in substantially greater numbers at conferences and workshops that deal with specific subject matter content. Where once the administrator sent his teachers or his department heads, he today sits with them in a collaborative effort to find answers to current curriculum problems. Look at the recent issue of your favorite administrative publication. Compare it with that of two, five, or ten years ago. You will find a definite rise in the number of articles on curriculum and instructional improvement. Talk to the members of the C.A.S.S.A. Accreditation Commission, and you will learn of numerous examples, garnered through a thoughtful study of various high school evaluations, of meaningful, dynamic curriculum development under the leadership of administrators.

What, however, about the indictment that the marked increase in curriculum directors and coordinators appointed throughout the State serves as a clear indication of the administrator's abandonment of his prime obligation? I believe that the rise indicates the reverse—that this is a further indication of active administrative interest, rather than of retirement from the field. It points up the importance of this phase of education and the

need for increased time and energy for its execution. It is a recognition of the fact that the presence of a curriculum coordinator, to carry out many of the details, can free an administrator for more significant, more creative leadership. One cannot fail to grant that a danger always exists that the administrator can ultimately slip into the trap of too heavy reliance upon a consultant or a coordinator, but the facts seem to minimize this circumstance. As a matter of simple fact, the attitude of curriculum specialists themselves, as reflected in the work of the California Association of Secondary Curriculum Coordinators and in the publications describing their operative philosophy, point heavily toward increased involvement and interaction with their administrative leaders.

How can we account for the renewed interest and leadership on the part of administrators? I believe that there are two main forces at work. First, and most obvious, is the increased interest on the part of the lay public in the instructional phase of the educational program. Look at your local newspaper, the "letters to the editor," your P.T.A. meeting topics. Compare the agenda of your Board meetings the past year and those of five years ago. The findings are obvious—the lay public is vitally interested in the educational product of our schools. Consequently, the administrator has responded to this interest with renewed participation in curriculum development and educational leadership. The other reason is less obvious. I refer to the sometimes forgotten background of the administrator. Remember? He started as a teacher, and deep down there still exists a desire to return to the primary reason he chose education as a career—his love for teaching and for working with young people. Now he has his chance with the blessings of his Board and his lay public. The need has always been present and recognized. But now, the climate is right. The desire of the lay public for primary consideration of curriculum, coupled with the deep-seated desire of the administrator to become actively involved, cannot help but produce new levels of cooperative endeavor and gain.

What suggestions, then, can be advanced for the encouragement of this trend and for increasing the effectiveness of the administrator in his newly-clarified role? Here might be a few, gleaned from personal observations of and conversations with administrators who seem to be successful educational leaders:

(1) Work toward being informed on curriculum matters.

(2) Seize opportunities to listen to discussions by teachers and specialists—perhaps even to listen more than participate.

(3) Read as much as possible; recognize, however, that this is time consuming, thus utilize listening to first-hand presentations and talks, discussions, etc., wherever possible.

(4) Continue to strive to secure assistants to handle administrative details, thus freeing yourself for creative leadership. Develop a willingness to turn loose of these details—this is harder to do.

(5) Set aside time each week for creative thought.

(6) Lend your administrative ability to implement the research and activities of teachers and specialist groups concerned with curriculum. You can be more valuable in implementing the work by those who are closest to the curriculum than in research on your own. The team approach produces results.

(7) Join with your fellow administrators in various State associations in mutually expanding knowledge of curriculum and in seeking better ways to implement ideas.

(8) Utilize your curriculum coordinator and specialist, but never relinquish leadership. This, I believe, is fundamental.

(9) Remember that you are best equipped by training and experience to promote and carry out curriculum ideas. Emphasize this important aspect of curriculum development.

(10) Take the lead in promoting adequate physical facilities for new curriculum trends. Team teaching and the consequent need for new types of teaching facilities serves as a good example of this.

(11) In summary, be interested, listen, read, contribute, implement, and above all, lead.

We are on the threshold of tremendous advancements in curriculum design. I believe that the evidence furnishes unmistakable indications that the administrator is returning to his role of educational leadership. I believe that this has tremendous and hopeful significance for the future.

UNESCO SEEKS TEACHERS FOR THE CONGO

UNESCO has undertaken the task of recruiting 500 teachers for service in the Republic of the Congo (Leopoldville). Applicants must possess a command of French sufficiently fluent to enable them to conduct classroom instruction easily in that language. Persons not positively possessing this degree of fluency cannot be considered. Base salaries, which are exempt from income tax, range from $7300 to $8750 per annum. In addition, the teachers will receive $20.00 per diem for the entire duration of their mission and $100 for tropical clothing. Family allowances will be granted where applicable, but under no circumstances will dependents be authorized to accompany the teacher to the Congo.

Applications from teachers in the United States should be addressed to Mr. Paul R. Serey, Staffing Management Officer, Office of International Administration, Department of State, Washington 25, D. C. A resumé of the candidate's experience and evidence of linguistic proficiency should be provided with the application.

—U.S. National Commission for UNESCO *Newsletter*
Dec. 12, 1960. Vol. VII, No. 25.

THE SPECIALIST AND THE CURRICULUM

BY PRUDENCE BOSTWICK* and JOHN A. DAHL†

A number of years ago a college president, a dean, and a curriculum consultant from a public school district were exchanging ideas with a representative of the ministry of education of another country, who was observing American schools as the guest of the State Department.

"I am deeply troubled," said the foreign guest, "by the precarious state of your public school curriculum. As I look about, I see your schools subjected to all kinds of criticism given by anyone who has a mind to speak. But, worse than this, I see them controlled, not by professional educators, but by legislators and by other laymen who sit on your boards of education and decide on policies which may or may not be consistent with what is known about learning or even with what is known about the nature of the physical, biological, and social world in which we live. No American educator with whom I have yet spoken has been able to deny that if the citizens of a community in the United States demanded that their schools teach that the world is flat, the schools would have to set about doing it."

The president, the dean, and the curriculum worker hastened to assure their visitor that this would certainly be the case if professional educators had permitted such ignorance to go unchallenged; if they had failed to keep alive in the community the search for truth. To the extent that the people of a community or of the country as a whole are uninformed, preyed upon by those who would exploit them, resentful of taxation for educational purposes, weak in their democratic faith in a fair and just educational opportunity for *all* youth, to this extent they force the schools to create limited and often false programs. Where educators

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themselves are evasive, cowardly, or ignorant, the people are deprived of the leadership through which good schools are developed.

Contrary to the situation in countries where the professional educator is held responsible for the quality of education and where the profession brooks no interference from the lay public, the situation in the United States is such that the people control the schools, both indirectly through pressure groups that may be thought of as extra-legal, and directly through elected representatives in legislature and boards of education. Through these powerful groups laymen dictate policies which determine the financial status of the schools and which control the hiring and firing of personnel and the selection of textbooks and other resources for learning.

Sometimes the professional educator smarts under the limitations which he must endure as a result of the broad political and social base on which the public schools rest. As more is known about adolescent development, about the emotional and intellectual drives in learning, about interpersonal and intergroup relationships, the profession grows increasingly restive under the uninformed or biased criticism of individuals and the recommendations of lay committees which, even though prompted by the worthiest of motives, may encourage changes which are inimical to the best development of children and youth.

However the members of the profession may feel, they are not and probably never will be free to go their way unchecked by evaluation by the public. Nor should they be. It is the essence of the democratic spirit that work of the specialist should be judged by those whose cause he serves. This is as true of the curriculum specialist as it is of the superintendent, the principal, the classroom teacher, the college professor, the doctor, the lawyer, the labor leader, the engineer, or the President of the United States. There is no more compelling evidence of the growing interest of the public in its schools than the flood of criticism and recommendations for change that are coming from individual parents and laymen and from any number of lay and professional groups. Books, pamphlets, broadsides, editorials, news items—all deserve careful attention and analysis by the profession to discover where the public senses weakness. Of special concern are reports from citizen groups such as the Citizen's Advisory Commission of the Joint Interim Committee on Education of the California Legislature[1] and the report of the President's Commission on National Goals, *Goals for Americans*,[2] which includes a chapter on "National Goals in Education." Add to these the writings of Admiral Rickover, Arthur Bestor, Paul Woodring, among others, and one has an

[1] *The Final Report of the Citizens Advisory Commission*, as submitted to the Joint Interim Committee on Education of the California Legislature, November 1, 1960. Hereafter called *The Report*.

[2] Prentice-Hall, December, 1960.

array of critical materials concerned, not only with the evaluation of educational practice, but also recommendations as to who shall be educated, what subject matter shall be used, where learning experiences shall be placed, and what methods shall be employed. The influence of such reports and writings is extensive. It is therefore important that the curriculum specialist acknowledge their presence and evaluate them according to their objectivity, their consistency, and their adequacy.

A suggestion which may have merit lies in bringing about the closest possible cooperation between the public and the professional educator in determining the goals of education. In this process the curriculum specialist would have the role of consultant, ready to give whatever of his knowledge was significant and helpful. Goal setting is of such central concern that it must not be left to any one group or profession. All people, either directly or through their representatives, must have a voice in the purposes of public education. Witness the kinds of questions that must be answered in order that the schools may have clear directives for the development of their programs: Shall the schools be designed to serve only an intellectual elite, or shall they be dedicated to serve all children and youth? Shall youth be educated to serve the ends of the State, or shall the State be so conceived as to serve youth's need for growing? Shall the school provide for the fundamental needs of youth or should there be a clear delineation between the unique functions of school, home, social agencies, and the community? Shall schools be supported by local, state, or federal funds or by all three and to what extent? What are the knowledges, skills, appreciations, and values which the people of this country wish for their children and youth? To what degree shall each individual attain these knowledges, skills, and values? What are the specialties needed to make possible the on-going and varied life of the nation?

Closely allied to goal setting is the process of evaluation. Here is another great area of concern in which the efforts of layman and professional educators may be successfully joined. Once objectives have been determined it is possible to begin to devise the means by which they can be evaluated. What observations are needed, what tests can be administered, what records should be kept? What evidence can we get that a youth is attaining his goals? What resources does the boy or girl bring to the task to be performed or the behavior to be changed? To what degree is he exerting his powers?

One important caution must be set down at the beginning of any deliberation about judging the effectiveness of the curriculum; namely, that in the evaluative process the growth to be measured must have a one-to-one relationship to the goals that are set. This caution must be observed particularly in the use of state-wide or nation-wide tests to determine

the adequacy of a young person's learning in a given subject field or in a given skill. Such tests can tell a youth and his evaluators where he stands in relation to many thousands of his contemporaries. They cannot tell him how well he has done in relation to his own abilities and strivings, nor in relation to the goals that were set for him and that he sets for himself.

Organizing the school for learning, and selecting and providing the experiences through which goals are to be realized is, in the opinion of many, best left to members of the profession. For the professional educator to relinquish this responsibility and to look to laymen for direction is to give evidence of inexcusable weakness and of a willingness to ignore the power and authority of expertness. In fact, any reluctance on the educator's part to assert his unique role in defining and developing the curriculum of the school is tantamount to his being willing to let the public believe that the world is still flat.

From his point of view as an expert, the curriculum specialist looks at the many recommendations that have come and continue to come from citizen groups. The recent report of the Citizen's Advisory Commission of California emphasizes the role of the school as the chief agent to help youth to master, to the extent of his ability, the "skills, knowledge, thought and appreciation which embody the major achievements of civilization."[3] There is concern for ethical standards and wise citizenship. There is a muting of the school's responsibility for personality development and the development of a way of life. It is not surprising then to discover that the Commission, except for those of its members who wrote a minority report,[4] is recommending that the school curriculum be shaped by legislative action and that mandatory State-wide examinations be used to measure standards in various schools of the State.[5] In the opinion of a curriculum specialist these movements toward rigidity of content and inflexibility in standards threaten the opportunity for individual schools and districts to deal with differences and lessen the chances for creative thinking and teaching at the local level.

A curriculum specialist turns with a more positive reaction to the recommendations of the authors of "The Goals of Education," prepared as part of the *Goals for Americans*. Here the emphasis is on the need for schools to "prepare *all* young people, whatever their talents, for the serious business of being free men and women."[6] The call is not for legis-

[3] *The Report*, p. 34.

[4] *The Report*, p. 80.

[5] *The Report*, p. 56; also Appendix III for the point of view of the Commission on State testing.

[6] See p. 51 of the *Saturday Review*, December 17, 1960, where highlights of the chapter are given.

lative action and testing on a nation-wide scale, but for a reconsideration of priority of subjects and a "fundamental re-examination" of the curriculum. It is recommended that the teaching of every subject be extensively re-appraised by the year 1970 and this not by laymen, but by teams composed of subject-matter experts, curriculum specialists, and classroom teachers.

Out of the confusion of the present and the cry of many voices there may come a complete reconstruction of the program of the public schools, especially if such a reconstruction should become part of a total look at the educational efforts of the nation. In his recent book *Education and the Human Quest,*[7] Herbert Thelen urges a "drastic overhauling" of the entire educational process as it goes on in the manifold groups of our society. The method of inquiry which he recommends involves the citizen *and* the educator; "everyone concerned with the enterprise of education (whether they know it or like it)" must be caught up in the overhauling. In such an endeavor the purposes may become more clearly seen and the relation between professional and non-professional groups may come into focus.

[7] Thelen, Herbert A., *Education and the Human Quest,* New York: Harpers, 1960.

FLEXIBLE LABORATORY SCHOOL

The University of Chicago Laboratory School has been awarded a grant of $9,500 by the Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc., to construct and equip six special rooms in its new $2,500,000 University High School. These will provide a flexible team-teaching instructional facility, which will be used as a teaching-learning laboratory. It will be used to accommodate groups of various sizes, organized for a variety of purposes. The equipment will include many new communication devices. The grant will pay the cost of altering design and construction of the six rooms so as to provide for the installation of flexible walls and for the development of new communication equipment, furniture, and acoustical treatment.

—*Educational Research Bulletin,* Vol. XXXIX, No. 7, Oct. 12, 1960.

THE PHILOSOPHER AND THE CURRICULUM

BY FREDERICK MAYER*

In the distant future when historians look back upon the United States as we look back upon Greece and Rome, American education will probably be regarded as one of our primary contributions to world civilization. The basic ideals of American education are so glorious that they indeed provide a solid hope for the future. Free public education, the separation of state and church, the promotion of adult education—to mention only a few features of American education—are all major achievements of the human spirit.

Still we should realize that smugness and complacency are as dangerous in education as in religion and politics. Progress demands critical self-evaluation. The weaknesses of the present American educational system cannot be remedied by a return to the Middle Ages, by the imitation of European patterns of education, or by a resurrection of Victorianism. We must stand on our own feet and work out our own educational salvation.

American education has moved from a theological emphasis in colonial times to a scientific basis today. This does not imply that scientific knowledge was unknown in colonial times; we have only to think of the influence of Newton upon Johnson, and later of the fruitful researches of Franklin and Priestley; rather the preoccupation was with man's soul and man's need for salvation.

The early period of American education is symbolized best by Jonathan Edwards who had a vivid awareness of the majesty of God. To Edwards, man was nothing and God was everything; man wallowed in sin; he was subject to a multitude of temptations; he was essentially a

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lustful, greedy creature given to pride and rebellion. No wonder that hell-fire was a fitting punishment for sinners, no wonder that the devil had such strong influence in human history; and to Edwards, the devil had a real meaning and an actual existence.

In secondary education, this view led to the spirit of authoritarianism. Students were to be taught that the ways of the world are sinful, and that reason is less important than faith. They were not to challenge the opinions of their teacher. To make education interesting and amusing was regarded almost as a crime by the Puritans.

The early curriculum of the secondary school was dominated by religious orthodoxy. It was thought that education had to substantiate the insights of religion. Thus the teacher, in essence, became an assistant minister.

The Deists, who opposed the Puritans, had a passionate faith in *freedom*. Man, they thought, could not be coerced by the past. History could be changed if humanity only would trust reason, rather than fanaticism, and would stress the ideals of this life, rather than the existence of the Beyond.

Schweitzer at one time said that ever since the 18th century philosophers have chosen the wrong path and, instead of defending civilization, have often been in the foreground of the forces trying to undermine civilization. Eighteenth century thinkers, like Jefferson, regarded themselves as guardians of culture; they had a passionate conviction that the life of reason and moderation was the best existence for man, and that democracy was far superior to totalitarianism.

The Deists expanded the secondary educational curriculum of the United States. Religion lost its place of eminence, instead the arts and sciences were stressed. Professional education became important. It was just as imperative to train the businessman, the physician, the lawyer, as the minister. Education lost part of its traditional flavor and instead concentrated upon the *present*. Physical education became an important part of the secondary curriculum; Deists, like Franklin, believed in the correspondence of physical and intellectual virtues.

The Transcendentalists, like Emerson, were rebels against mediocrity and conformity. Brook Farm was a symbol of their rebellion. They believed in the wisdom of the heart, in intuition, in faith rather than reason.

In Emerson, especially, Transcendentalism represented a romantic faith in the individual. No state, no church, could coerce the individual who was to preserve his integrity against all causes. Thoreau would have nothing to do with Bostonian society. Thus he escaped to Walden where he lived close to nature and where he found a new meaning in life. To the Transcendentalists, progress of society was an illusion; only the individual could advance; only the individual could grow; society represented

merely an artificial force.

The Transcendentalists, like the Deists, had great faith in education. The center of secondary education was to be literature; students thus would study the great writings of Europe and Asia; they would read Goethe and Confucius, Wordsworth and Laotze, Carlyle, and the *Upanishads.*

A radical revision of the curriculum was undertaken by the Transcendentalists, especially by Alcott. He even tried to introduce the problem of sex into his teaching, but the proper Bostonians were shocked; newspapers carried articles about the "immorality" of his school; liberals, like Emerson, came to his defense, but when Alcott admitted a Negro girl, a real storm broke loose and the school had to be closed down.

The Transcendentalists were opposed to narrow nationalism in education. The universal basis of culture was to be stressed. In the twilight of Transcendentalism, the Hegelian philosophy came to the United States and found a ready reception, especially in St. Louis, Missouri. W. T. Harris regarded himself as a Hegelian. As editor of the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy,* he tried to humanize Hegel's *Logic* and *The Phenomenology of Spirit;* as Commissioner of Education of the United States, Harris stressed discipline and the ideal purposes of education.

Still the idealistic gospel of Transcendentalism was challenged by some of the most provocative thinkers of the 19th century. Thus Melville, in *Moby Dick,* indicated that man and God are mysteries which cannot be understood by our reason. In the struggle against nature man would lose just as Captain Ahab lost against the whale. Man conquered and yet was conquered; *he expanded his desires and lost the capacity for happiness.* Melville contrasted the contented lives of primitive tribes with the tortured existence of modern man. Perhaps civilization was a doubtful blessing, and perhaps the life of nature was better than the quiet desperation of a mechanized and urbanized existence.

Adams was a strong critic of the education of his time. He confessed that his formal schooling had left little impression upon his mind. He thought that most of his teachers were superficial and uninspired. His real education came after college when he traveled and when he escaped from the commercialism of his native culture.

But the voice of Adams was an isolated protest in the era of pragmatism, which became, in the 20th century, the dominant American philosophy. Peirce, the founder of American pragmatism, was interested in the clarification of ideas. He was concerned with logical problems, and rather disconcerted by the concrete and down-to-earth emphasis of William James. As a matter of fact, Peirce changed the name of his philosophy to "pragmaticism," so that it would not be mistaken for James' ideals.

The pragmatists, like James, Dewey, Mead, Otto, Bode, and Kilpatrick,

were the intellectual children of Darwin. Had not Darwin demonstrated the importance of change in evolution? Away then with permanence! Away with all forms of absolutism!

Like Heraclitus and Bergson, the pragmatists were imbued by the flux of life. To them, change was welcome and implied a reconstruction of ideas. Man was to be viewed as a biological organism rather than as a creature of pure reason. Experience, rather than abstraction, was to guide philosophy and education. The study of history convinced the pragmatists that no institution was eternal, no idea infallible, and no belief absolute. The main controversies of philosophy, according to James, were caused by verbal pitfalls. The *cash value* of ideas would stress evidence and the consequences of our reasoning.

While the universe of Emerson was rather complete, the universe of the pragmatists was dynamic and constantly changing. Even God, in the philosophy of James, was evolving. The incompleteness of life was an invitation to action, to concrete improvement, and, above all, to a stress upon education.

In secondary education the pragmatists had their most lasting influence. Traditional education was book-centered; the teacher dominated the classroom; drill was used to convey the subject matter to the student. The interests of the student were secondary; instead, the values of formal learning were glorified. Those who did not pass examinations were flunked and had to repeat their studies. All this was part of the Platonic heritage. Had not Plato subordinated the individual to preconceived standards?

The excesses of progressive education can be traced mainly to the influence of Rousseau. The French thinker believed that nature is to be our guide and that civilization holds us in chains. He abhorred discipline; he looked upon the child as being naturally good. We know today that by nature the child is neither good nor evil and that he needs wise guidance if his potentialities are to be explored. If the schools will not motivate him, television, the motion picture, and the comic book will perform that task and the result may be the creation of a mass-man who has no real understanding of culture.

The opposition of Rousseau towards intellectual training had unfortunate consequences. Like Rousseau some American educators glorified activity for the sake of activity. *But activity, unguided by deliberation and analysis leads to an unexamined way of life.*

All this should not detract from the great and formidable achievements of the new educational ideals. They made the secondary school more fascinating; they stimulated the creativity of children; they brought about a better balance between work and play; they developed more intense social consciousness; they created cooperative patterns of behavior.

In short, the basis of democracy was solidified through the new educational ideals.

Our period, especially after the two wars, has been distinguished by a vigorous attack upon education. It was foreshadowed already by thinkers, like T. S. Eliot and Santayana, who favored the classical tradition of education. T. S. Eliot in his *Notes Towards a Definition of Culture* felt that real culture rests upon a hierarchy and that it cannot be separated from tradition. The past should be cultivated, discipline should be stressed, religious idealism should be emphasized. Modern education had taken the wrong road and had created a nihilistic atmosphere by not stressing the need for tradition and for a genuine aristocracy in education.

Essentialists, like Bagley and Kandel, have concentrated their attacks upon the secondary grades. They have charged that modern American education neglects exacting studies, does not pay attention to the logic of the subject-matter, does not recognize sufficiently scholastic attainment, emphasizes activity for the sake of activity, uses the school for indoctrination for a new social order, and improvises so much that the curriculum is in a constant state of flux. The essentialists favor the preservation of the past, and they stress the role of the teacher rather than the interests of the students. Discipline is to have a central place in education, for how can the immature decide what they want or what is actually good for them? Knowledge demands effort and intense concentration; the road to culture is a narrow one and demands self-control, rather than self-expression. The foolish exaggeration of the attacks is best indicated by a book entitled *This Farce Called Education*, by R. E. Kahrhoff, who dedicates the book in the following line: "To the children —May God help you, because your teachers cannot."

In times of crisis we often lose sight of our greatest assets. Thus the Athenians attacked Pericles, although he was their greatest statesman, and they put Socrates to death, although he was one of their wisest men. Jefferson, one of the foremost American statesmen, was attacked bitterly during his lifetime, and some critics even spoke of him as anti-Christ. Lincoln, likewise, was exposed to constant vituperation.

The violent attacks being made upon public education are usually exaggerated and irrational. To be sure, criticism is needed, but the criticism should be constructive, rather than destructive; it should come from within rather than without. Above all, it should be conscious of the *importance* of public education for democratic living. Are not our public schools the bastions of freedom? Are not our public schools the most promising signs for a better future?

The function of philosophy, in a time of crisis, is to give us a renewed faith in the institutions which contribute to survival and national greatness. We realize the constant need for self-examination, especially in

the field of education, but at the same time we see the possibilities of the future. If we elect the path of authoritarianism in education, we shall strike a deadly blow at freedom; for our educational philosophy will determine to a great extent the future of civilization.

The real need in secondary education today is not to go back to the fundamentals. The real need is for a more flexible and creative curriculum. The present rather than the past should be the center of our studies. Our period demands more not less freedom in education.

Secondary education is the test of democracy. The questions we should ask are: Is secondary education truly universal? Does it promote patterns of cooperation? Does it improve the tone of human relations? Does it develop dedicated leaders as well as an appreciative audience? Is it imbued with the spirit of genuine creativity?

The choice is ours. We can follow the advice of Bestor and Rickover which means more authoritarianism, more exclusiveness, more imitation of European systems, more rigidity, and more traditionalism. Such ideas would lead to disaster in an age which demands genuine universalism and a genuine open perspective. The other alternative lies in cherishing the ideals of Jefferson and Emerson who regarded education as a tool of creativity and as a prelude to a more liberal culture.

The challenge of Jefferson can be applied to our time. In a letter to Whyte in 1786 he said, "Preach, my dear sir, a crusade against ignorance; establish and improve the law for educating the common people. Let our countrymen know, that the people alone can protect us . . ., and that the tax which will be paid for this purpose, is not more than the thousandth part of what will be paid to kings and nobles, who will rise among us if we leave the people in ignorance."

SCHOOLS OF TOMORROW – TODAY!

Promising experiments in education are described by Arthur Morse in *Schools of Tomorrow–TODAY!* (Doubleday, 191 pages, $1.50). Morse is an award-winning journalist who has written widely on educational subjects and was producer-director of the National Education Association's documentary film, *How Good Are Our Schools? Dr. Conant Reports . . .*

The new book describes nine experiments being carried on now in elementary schools, high schools, and colleges across the country. In each instance the author gives a source for further information. With Ford Foundation backing, New York State Education Department commissioned the book.

– *Education U.S.A.*, September 1960.

THE RESEARCHER AND THE CURRICULUM

BY KIMBALL WILES*

The August 21, 1960, San Francisco *Chronicle* contained a half-page spread of an article by Admiral Rickover entitled, "What Is a U. S. High School Diploma Worth? A few pages deeper in the paper was a 6 x 8 inch feature written by Benjamin Fine. Mr. Fine's story was a report of a ten-year experiment with secondary schools in Sweden. For ten years one-third of the Swedish high schools had operated as comprehensive schools while the other operated in the European tradition. After careful examination of the results, the Swedish government had decided to change all of its high schools to comprehensive schools. Admiral Rickover's opinion, based on one man's observation, was given a half-page spread. Benjamin Fine's report of a ten-year experiment by an entire nation was given a small 6 x 8 inch space in the middle of the paper. Apparently certain mass media in the country favor a certain type of secondary education and wish to influence the future of the American secondary school without regard to the evidence.

The most extensive study of American secondary education that has ever taken place was conducted in the late thirties. *The evidence of this major study supports the position that no particular set of courses in high school provides the best preparation for college for all students.*

One analysis of the results of the Eight Year Study that is not widely known is the comparison of the success in college of students from schools who had made the greatest change in their curriculum with the success of students from schools who had not revised their curriculum much. The Eight Year Study had a curriculum staff that worked with the 30 schools attempting to help them modify their programs in the way each

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school staff deemed best. This curriculum staff had no contact with the persons who were following up the students in college. At the end of the eight years the curriculum consultants were asked to identify the schools that had made the greatest departure from the typical college preparatory curriculum. The college follow up staff was asked to indicate the students from the 30 schools who in their opinion had been most successful in college. The students identified as most successful in college were those who came from the schools the curriculum consultants said had made the greatest curriculum change. *Once again, the evidence indicates that no particular set of courses provides the best possible preparation for college.*

Throughout the years since the completion of this study, its results have been consistently ignored by college entrance boards and by the vocal minority who proclaim loudly that the high school program should be restricted to the traditional college preparatory courses. If the profession is making a scientific approach to improving secondary education and there is real doubt as to the integrity of the Eight Year Study, the study should be replicated to verify or challenge the results rather than attempting to settle the issue by shouting or power politics.

For the past six years, the Commission on Education of Adolescents of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development has attempted to look at the evidence and take a position based on that evidence as to what is needed in American secondary schools. Primary issues were identified. Commission members collected all available evidence on each issue and a statement of position based on the evidence was formulated and published in "The High School We Need."

What issues did the Commission see as fundamental?

First, *who shall be educated in the secondary schools?* Some people are saying that all American youth should have a secondary education. Others advocate that only those able to profit by a restricted curriculum shall be allowed to attend.

This question is one of philosophy. Its roots are based in the ideals of the democratic society. The Commission took the position that a democratic society should assume responsibility for developing the intellect of each of its citizens as far as possible. It recognized that such a secondary school population would have wide differences in ability and purposes and the program of the school would have to be organized to accommodate these variations.

Second, *should there be a common program for all students with few choices?* Some believe that the school's sole purpose is to develop the intellect and that only a few disciplines really make this contribution. Others believe that many disciplines educate and that students should have many options. The Commission took the position that the secondary

schools should provide many offerings and give the student as many choices as possible. To increase the width of choice even further than at present, a number of the courses should be one semester in length. The Commission advocated this procedure because it believed that the secondary school has the function of educating all youth, and the evidence of the Eight Year Study supports the position that an individualized program in which a student does not follow the traditional college preparatory curriculum does not hinder the development of his intellect.

Third, *should the high school be a comprehensive one?* Some persons argue for specialized schools, with some schools offering college preparatory courses and others that provide vocational preparation for the persons who would attend them. The Commission holds that all students should be educated in the same school, that all should have the opportunity to learn to know and work with each other. If specialized schools were to become the pattern of secondary education in the United States, social stratification in American society would be further emphasized. For the most part, persons of superior social and economic status would attend one type of school and persons of lesser status would attend other types.

Fourth, *how much general education should there be and what should it be?* Some people believe that all of the courses that are currently required in secondary schools constitute general education. Others hold that courses in basic citizenship skills are the general education. The Commission took the position that the distinction between general education and specialized education should be in terms of the degree of choice given a student. It felt that all students should have from one-third to one-half of the program in general education designed to develop democratic values, skills in implementing democratic values, economic competence, intergroup and international understanding. Courses to promote these competences should be required and should be the extent to which these competences are developed. All other should be elective. Only those courses that are essential for national welfare should be required. Other courses should be included in a student's program only if they will further his individual development in socially approved directions.

Fifth, *how much individualization of a student's program should there be?* Some people would like to have all the program required. Others contend that only a small portion of the program should be required.

The Commission believed, as I have indicated, that required courses should be kept to a minimum and students should use electives to further vocational purposes and follow avocational interests. To implement this point of view means that there should be no specialized curriculums in the school. Students should not be classified as college preparatory,

general, or vocational and asked to follow a certain pattern of required and elective courses. Each student's selection of courses should be tailor-made for him in terms of selections made by the student, his parents, and his counselor. At the beginning of the 9th grade he should establish a program for the four years, revise it at the end of the year in terms of his achievement and his changed purposes, and again at the conclusion of the 10th and 11th grades. No student would lose credit because of changing his program.

This approach to the organization of the secondary school curriculum calls for a redefinition of the meaning of vocational education. Vocational courses consist of those courses which a person uses to further a vocational interest. For those heading for college, advanced mathematics and foreign language should be classified as vocational courses if they are necessary to secure admission to college. Courses that are vocational for one student may be avocational for another. One student in a typing class may be preparing herself to be a secretary while another may want to type for pleasure or convenience.

Sixth, *what type of grouping should be followed in the high school?* Some recommend homogeneous grouping in all courses. Others want homogeneous grouping in academic courses and heterogeneous grouping in non-academic courses. Conant recommends homogeneous grouping in required courses and heterogeneous grouping in electives. On this point the Commission differs with Conant. It advocates that in general education courses, those required of all, the grouping should be heterogeneous, and in elective courses the grouping should be homogeneous.

Seventh, *what provision should be made for the gifted?* The program proposed by the Commission would care for the needs of the gifted. Each youngster could move ahead into more complicated courses at his own rate. In addition, provision should be made for seminars and opportunity to do individual research in the areas of knowledge in which the student is interested.

The Commission took a firm stand against the proposal that the gifted student should take primarily mathematics, foreign languages, and science. It is convinced that many disciplines are effective in developing the intellect. It believed that many types of giftednesses should be recognized and fostered. It argued that it will be as important for the future development of the country to have some of the most gifted and creative people study in the area of humanities, philosophy, and the arts as in the sciences.

Eighth, *what provisions should be made for the slow learner?* Many wish to segregate him. The Commission proposed that the slower student be in heterogeneous groups in general education and programmed individually for elective courses with choices restricted to those courses

which do not have requirements of a level of competency above his present achievement. It is important not to separate the slower learner from the others for the entire school day. Neither should his general education courses be watered-down versions of other courses which eliminate all but the basic facts. Major emphasis should not be placed on memory and recall. It is as important for the slower learner to have opportunity to explore, to create, and to implement as it is for the more gifted.

Ninth, *shall the school offer different types of diplomas?* Critics have contended that the present high school diploma means nothing and should be replaced by a variety of diplomas which certify the program a student has taken. The Commission supported Conant's recommendation for a common diploma with the student's transcript recorded on the back. Present diplomas do not tell employers or colleges exactly what the student has done in the secondary school. Neither would different types of diplomas. If a transcript were placed on the back of each diploma, it would make clearer to anyone concerned the kind of experiences the student had had in the secondary schools and the school's estimate of his success.

Predictions of Things to Come

During the next five years we can expect to see the following:

1. *Increased emphasis on guidance, science, mathematics, and foreign language with continuing federal support.* The National Defense Education Act is getting results. As more money is being fed into these portions of the secondary school program, better trained guidance, science, mathematics, and foreign language teachers are being secured and programs in these areas are improving because of better facilities and equipment.
2. *Increased flexibility in the high school program with courses becoming available to pupils on the basis of intensity of purpose and level of achievement instead of chronological age.* In spite of the arguments by some critics of secondary education for a return to fundamental courses, this change will not occur. The demands of our society for the kinds of courses offered in art, music, family life, psychology, sociology, and even driver training education will prevail. Various pressure groups who recognize the importance of each of these areas will stand back of the phase of the program in which they are interested if that portion comes into real jeopardy. They will become as vocal as have the advocates of so-called basic education.
3. *Increase in the number of seminars and opportunities for individ-*

ual research for gifted students. Many high schools are experimenting with advanced seminars and individual research. Some are providing small laboratories where gifted individuals may work on their own outside of class.

4. *Increased use of T.V. and other mass media and of teaching machines.* All of the evidence available indicates that as far as facts alone are concerned, classes taught by a good teacher over T.V. and other mass media can get results equal to those of regular classes. This knowledge will bring increased use of T.V. instruction particularly in the provision of elective courses that are not available in all schools. The research in the use of teaching machines will lead many schools to begin to use these machines in teaching skills.
5. *The development of new structural forms for high school plant.* As mass media use increases, the need of some classrooms that are large and other work areas that are smaller will be more apparent. Architects will begin to design more buildings that have classrooms with varying size or more space with movable walls.

During 1965 to 1970 the following will occur:

1. *Federal support for citizenship education.* By the middle of this decade it will be realized that federal support for vocational education and for science, mathematics, and foreign language is not enough. The nation will become increasingly aware of the need for developing more commitment to democratic values and increasing patriotism. Out of the evident shortcoming in this area will come a cry for federal support for citizenship and humanities education.
2. *The use of large classes for teaching the cultural heritage area of curriculum, literature, social studies, and sciences.* Classes will acquaint students with our cultural development by means of lectures, television, and demonstrations. Classes of 100 to 200 will not be unusual. Such classes will be developed in school programs which provide seminars. Large classes in these areas will make possible a low pupil-teacher ratio for seminars and creative work. The seminars will provide the opportunity for the analysis of information gains in the large classes. Accrediting associations and administrators will move away from the assumption that all teachers should have the same pupil-teacher load and perform the same type of functions.
3. *Workshop laboratories provided for the development of individual skills.* Reading laboratories and workshops in grammar and spelling will provide individualized instruction which permits students

to progress at their own rate. Foreign language laboratories will be used extensively in foreign language instruction. Success with the use of teaching machines will lead many schools to offer most of their instruction in basic mathematics skills in laboratories where students work individually with teaching machines. Much more of the classroom experience in secondary schools will be in laboratories, whether the field is science, art, foreign language, English, or mathematics.

To attempt to guess what lies ahead is hazardous. But it is necessary for intelligent planning. The predictions presented have been based on the history of the secondary schools during the past four decades and the research in the social and behavioral sciences dealing with the problems and pressures on youth in our society. Whether you agree with these hypotheses or not, test them against the evidence to which you have access.

BANNER FOR SUBJECT-CENTERED SCHOOL

The current need to re-emphasize the school's special responsibility for intellectual development requires us to reappraise the school as school and its place today among the other agencies with which it exists. It is sometimes said that since good teaching must take into account the child's total development, the school should provide all the services from which a child might benefit. This contention makes no practical sense, however, unless the school is to become the only child-serving agency of the community. It is not likely that such a proposal will be made by school people or anyone else, nor is there much chance of its being accepted if it were proposed.

A more reasonable approach is to assign to the school the systematic development of intellectual, social, and vocational competence and to assign to other agencies the functions they can perform. Such a division of labor is no argument for a narrow or formalized curriculum. The good school is always concerned with the promotion of physical and mental health, with productive and satisfying human relationships in a setting of moral and ethical values. Its teaching must be based upon the best that is known about human development and the nature of learning. It must make full use of the stimulating effects of group situations and should use as its tools every appropriate mechanical and electronic device.

—John H. Fischer, "Our Changing Conceptions of Education"
Phi Delta Kappan, Vol. XLII, No. 1. Oct. 1960.

GUIDE LINES FOR CURRICULUM ACTION IN THE PERIOD AHEAD

BY J. CECIL PARKER*

EDITOR'S NOTE:

Dr. Parker was asked to select the major ideas inherent in the symposium and additionally to identify those factors of significance which might constitute a guiding statement for curriculum work in the immediate future. The following twenty-six points thus serve as a summary of crucial problems and as a guide for action.

1. The critical issues and the facts of the present, rather than our dedication to the past, should occupy the center of our efforts in curriculum development.
2. We must find ways of releasing, nurturing, and financing creativity. Solutions for many curriculum problems are not to be found in analyses of present and past practices. There is urgent need for invention of research tools and widespread innovation in educational practices.
3. In facing curriculum problems, smugness and complacency are to be regarded as dangerous. Progress will require tough-minded analysis and self-evaluation.
4. It would be tragic to ignore evidence yielded by past research because a period of national anxiety exists and some must look for scapegoats.
5. An abiding concern for the nature and the growth of the individual, at his own rate and toward his goals, must serve as a major basis for curriculum thinking. The existence of individual differences is an important established fact.
6. We must learn how to make it possible for the individual to progress through the organized public school, at his own best rate and toward his goals, without breaking down a reasonably efficient school organization.

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7. We need to learn more about the ability of students to engage in specialized study at various age levels.
8. Curriculum decisions should be based increasingly upon the kinds of learning processes most appropriate to various educational objectives.
9. It is imperative that we find ways to make it possible for the learner to assume increasing responsibility for his own learning.
10. The determination of priorities among the conventional public school subjects must be based upon more than the opinions of individuals regardless of their specialization or status. If some subjects are more important than others, the standards for judging "importance" must be defined.
11. One basis for the assignment of significance to a subject in the public school curriculum may be to ferret out the "discipline of the subject." What does the subject do? How is it accomplished? What tools, instrumentalities, processes has it matured? What can one do with them? Scholarship in the several subjects has progressed unevenly in answering these questions.
12. We should devote more resources and efforts to searching out those aspects of the discipline of each subject that are essential from those that are not in establishing a foundation for advanced learning.
13. The probabilities are great that desirable results can be produced for the public school curriculum by thinking and planning on the basis of the existence of several kinds of subject matter that do not conform to the conventional designations. One proposal is that of five types of subject matter: 1) laws, principles, generalizations, conclusions; 2) methods of deriving the principles or generalizations; 3) interpretations and applications of the principles or generalizations; 4) methods of interpretation and application; 5) unsolved problems and crucial questions.
14. Extensive work is required to make all members of the educational team consistently and reliably informed on curriculum problems and issues. Gardner[1] proposes reappraisal of every subject by teams composed of (a) best minds in the subject matter field, (b) curriculum specialists, and (c) the most experienced school teachers in the subject.
15. Our success in making progress will be limited unless we can develop procedures by which we become more directly involved with all groups that take differing points of view. In becoming involved with those of different views, we need not be accused of abandoning our

[1] Gardner, John W., *Goals for Americans*. Report of President's Commission on National Goals.

convictions.

16. Boards of education are taking increasing interest, and are correspondingly exerting greater influence, in curriculum decisions. It is necessary to give considerable attention to the improvement of two-way communication between boards of education and others concerned with curriculum planning.
17. The school administrator continues to be a major factor in curriculum development. His capacity for leadership must be utilized fully as we seek to remake the curriculum to meet current and future requirements.
18. Teacher-administrator collaboration on curriculum problems must be emphasized continuingly as a fundamental operation.
19. The successful teacher must receive full respect as a partner in seeking solutions to problems and as an important agent through whom decisions become enacted.
20. It is essential that curriculum plans and decisions do not restrict teachers in ingenuity, unorthodox thinking, and individual creativeness.
21. There must be a concerted effort to direct extensive curriculum research to the classroom situation.
22. We must discover how to avoid abuses and to make the best uses of the mechanical tools that apparently will be available in the classroom.
23. The concept of the graded public school curriculum must be critically re-examined. Current practices present numerous conflicts with the facts of individual differences.
24. New and different bases for grouping students are required. They should be in accord with the necessity for grouping in different ways to achieve different purposes.
25. It is becoming increasingly apparent that we need, for a limited proportion of public school students, a new kind of part-time school. Abundant and varied resources should be available and the curriculum planned for and with the individual student.
26. The present situation indicates that we must expend considerably more time and other resources, including money, on development, invention, exploration of the unorthodox, and the solution of problems.

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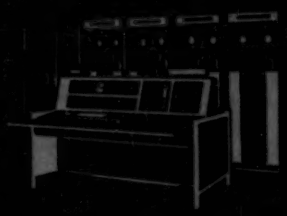

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